

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XL, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1949

A Screening Service for Social Science Teaching

O. M. DICKERSON

Greeley, Colorado

It is now nearly thirty years since the Council for the Social Studies was formed. Much progress has been made in organizing social studies teachers in the secondary schools. The results have been largely along the line of developing group consciousness and a sort of labor-union solidarity. Teachers have benefited personally from the social and intellectual contacts.

In the matter of real contribution to professional knowledge in our own field, we have less tangible results to show. Scientific progress in making our teaching more effective has been extremely small. Individuals have made progress, but there has been little passed on to the practicing profession of teachers that can be described as proved better techniques. Some methods are different. Some may be better, but we can't prove it. We should be in a position to do so.

Many teachers of the social studies have more than once mentally contrasted the growth in professional knowledge and techniques in medicine, surgery, agriculture and other fields with the lack of similar progress in their own field. It is still true in the social studies, as it was half a century ago, that the validity of a method is measured by the loudness with which its advocates can yell. Whoever can shout the loudest has the best methods.

In short, we, as a profession, are where the medical profession was in 1880. There were individually splendid doctors and a few successful surgeons. In most cases their skills died with them because they worked alone. Patent medicine vendors and quacks were everywhere, each selling his wares by clever advertising. Whoever could make the most noise and attract the most attention had the best remedy. Some of these advertised products were good. Some

were clever frauds. None did all that was claimed for them. The public had no way of determining which claims were valid and which were spurious. As teachers of the social studies we are in that position today.

In various ways the medical fraternity secured the benefits of a screening service which gradually sorted out remedies and techniques that produced beneficial results from those that did not. The Pure Food Drug Act slowly eliminated most of the fraudulent and unproved advertising. The Bureau of Standards systematically checked claims for proprietary products. The medical journals supplied standards for reporting the relative success of new methods. Drug companies found it to their financial advantage to check the known effects of each new drug and quickly make it available to practicing physicians with accurate information as to how it worked. Great research centers were developed at our medical schools where underlying causes of diseases were studied and means of treating them tested. One dread disease after another yielded to this detailed, organized attack. Even cancer may soon be toppled from its position as the chief killer through cooperating research.

The farmers have secured similar benefits from a nationally organized screening service for proposals as to methods and materials in their own field. The various bureaus in the United States Department of Agriculture have set up research staffs, supplemented by the experimental stations in all parts of the country, which have supplied accurate information on animal and plant breeding, feeding, fertilizers, crop rotation, storing, protection against insect pests and varieties of plants best adapted to various conditions. The result is that much of the guess work has disappeared from agri-

culture. False or inaccurate advertising has largely vanished. Tested, proved information is available to all who wish it.

An observer who attends a modern farmers' institute and then an average teachers' meeting cannot escape being painfully impressed by the professional scientific discussion in one and the rambling guesses and mere personal experience type of reports in the other. Teachers should be the leading professional group. They obviously are not. The reason is that they alone of the important groups of professional workers have no organized screening service which can supply the tested common information upon which future professional progress can be built.

Can a screening service for social studies teaching be created? The answer is yes. The job is more difficult, perhaps, than it was in medicine, science or agriculture, but it can be done.

We are far better off than was the medical profession in 1890. We are now fairly well organized. We have common journals that could devote a major part of their space to reporting proved scientific results in our field.

We have in every large public school system well organized and efficiently manned testing departments that can systematically measure and evaluate the observable results of the use of various methods and materials and report their findings. These can be made to render for us a service similar to that of testing laboratories.

We have hundreds of eager, devoted teachers who will gladly cooperate in any common screening program. Too many of these are today literally forced to use techniques that they believe to be unwise, unsound and even harmful. They are anxious to know and to be permitted to use that which can be proved to be best.

We have scores of allegedly experimental schools. These could come into the program to do some cooperative experimental work. They could in time render for our professional group a type of service similar to that now done for agriculture by the experimental stations.

We have the colleges and universities to which an increasing proportion of our high school graduates go. This is the common market for our finished product. It can be measured there when it enters and as it progresses

through these institutions. In this way schools and teachers who are doing superior work along any line can be located, their work examined and the superior techniques reported to the profession. Those whose product reveals the least satisfactory results can also be located, conditions analyzed and reasons found.

The nation was shocked by the *New York Times* survey of history teaching of April 4, 1943, to find that from 70 to 80 per cent of high school graduates entering college were apparently woefully ignorant of the commonest knowledge of the development of their own country and its ideals. The really important thing in that survey was that 10 to 25 per cent of the pupils seemingly knew their history fairly well. Their teachers obviously had been doing an excellent job as shown by the results. Their pupils had been well taught. Who did it? How was it done? If we could have had that information, we could have quickly improved history teaching throughout the country.

We did not even attempt to get it. Instead we criticized adversely those who had attempted to show the actual results of our teaching. Suppose a similar survey in the medical field had revealed that even a fraction of one per cent of the doctors of the country were apparently treating cancer successfully. How long would it have been before the methods used by the gifted or lucky few would have been checked and if found true have been made common knowledge of the whole medical fraternity? As a professional group of workers it is up to us to remedy this situation in regard to our own work. We don't have to lag years behind other professional groups in our capacity to find and make known the most effective ways of doing our work.

In addition to what we now have, we shall need a central planning organization for the screening service. Everything cannot be attacked at once. A group, somewhat like the general staff of an army, should select year by year the items to be screened and lay out plans for having it done. A financial grant should be sought from individuals or from one of the large trust funds to make possible the continuing work of this central staff organization. The annual grant need not be very large to begin with, but it needs to be available over a period

of years. Good results will be dependent upon continuity of effort and careful planning.

The Office of Education at Washington should be put under requisition to supply some of the services for our workers, especially in the field of inspection and testing of results. It should in time supply a service to teachers of the social studies comparable to that of the Bureau of Standards in the scientific and industrial fields.

Much of what is revealed by a screening service at first will probably be negative, but negative information in the field of scientific progress is important. It was worth millions to our people to learn that certain "pain killers" would not cure rheumatism and that strongly advertised "cough syrups" were no panacea for consumption. Each bit of information, either positive or negative, that we can establish by scientific proof is that much real progress. At the present time we are accumulating and disseminating mostly opinions—many of them not even supported by testimonials as were the patent medicine advertisements of a half century ago. In this age of scientific progress this is no longer professionally respectable.

The job can be done. We can set up the machinery by which professional knowledge of how best to do our work can be tested for its validity and the results made available. The money can be found. We can remove from ourselves the stigma of being a group of workers without the means of discovering and disseminating proved methods of improving our professional work. What we do or fail to do to the minds and intellectual habits of children committed to our care is no less important than what the medical and nursing services do to their bodies. The next thirty years can be made a period of unparalleled professional development in our field and not just thirty more years of friendly social organization. The professional ability to organize such a screening service can be found among our teachers. They need leadership. That leadership will appear as teachers recognize the need of such a service and skilled research workers acquire the professional know-how of checking the validity of claims as they are advanced. We can build professional knowledge upon proved results as have other professions.

The Election of 1948 in the Light of History

JAMES A. HUSTON

Department of History, Government and Economics, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana

Results of the election of 1948 seem to suggest that sometimes one may arrive at a clearer conception of political trends through an examination of political history than through recourse to "hunches," wishful thinking—or professional polls. While it is true that some traditions of American political history pointed to a Republican victory in the 1948 presidential election, there certainly were others—and evidently more compelling ones—which indicated serious obstacles on the Dewey road toward the White House.

Perhaps the most important of these is the historical trend that a party tends to hold its accumulated popular votes for President. Much greater significance should have been attached to the advantage which the Democrats had in

the great bloc of votes which had been built up under Franklin D. Roosevelt. No candidate ever has won a presidential election with less popular votes than the opposing party had in the preceding election.

The Republicans entered the post-Civil War period with a definite advantage in popular votes. In succeeding elections the totals grew for both major parties, but they grew more rapidly for the Democrats. The Democrats overtook their rivals, in popular votes, in 1876, ran virtually even in 1880, and emerged with a winning candidate (Cleveland) in 1884. It still was close, but it should be noted that Cleveland's opponent, James G. Blaine, polled more votes than did Garfield in winning the preceding election. In other words, Cleveland won, not

by attracting votes from the opposing camp, but by adding more new votes to his own total. The Democratic total of about 5,000,000 held good and continued to grow. Bryan, in 1896, received about 6,500,000 votes, but McKinley won over 7,000,000. With Alton B. Parker the candidate in 1904, the Democratic total dropped by more than 1,000,000 votes—but that 1,000,000 did *not* transfer to Theodore Roosevelt. Otherwise the totals of both parties remained substantially the same, and of course there was a Republican victory every time until 1912. Even in 1912 the accumulated totals remained about the same, but that year saw a split in the Republican vote. Actually Wilson's 6,286,000 votes were less than Bryan had received any of the three times when he had run; the addition of Taft's 3,480,000 to Roosevelt's (Progressive) 4,126,000 would make 7,600,000—about the Republican "normal."

With ranks closed once more, the Republicans, with Hughes, were able to boost their total popular vote in 1915 to 8,500,000, but Wilson was able to win even more new votes to bring the Democratic total up to more than nine million. The woman suffrage amendment to the Constitution came into force just in time to make available a large pool of new votes for the election of 1920. Thus while James Cox was able to retain the Democratic nine million accumulation, handsome Warren Gamaliel Harding won all the new votes to gain a total of over 16 million.

"Fighting Bob" La Follette apparently did pick up some votes from both major parties in 1924 when his Progressive ticket polled 4,800,000 votes; but the total reduction in the major party votes was much less than that.

Alfred E. Smith approached the previous Republican total in 1924 with 15,000,000 votes, but Herbert Hoover's popular vote went all the way to 21,000,000. The nature of that vote should have warned observers to recognize the possibility of a sweeping Democratic victory in 1932. In carrying Florida, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia, of the solid South, as well as all the border states, Hoover obviously had received an important number of Democratic votes which almost certainly would return to the fold with the the nomination of a more acceptable candidate in 1932. The addition of those southern votes to the 15,000,000 which

Smith had built up elsewhere would go far toward making a Democratic victory possible next time. In 1932, then, Roosevelt ran the Democratic total up to 22,800,000, while the Republican vote dropped nearer its "normal"—15,700,000.

In 1936 Alfred M. Landon received a popular vote of 16,800,000, but again most of the new votes went to Roosevelt, for a new high of 27,700,000. A Republican victory in 1940 was practically a numerical impossibility, but had the G.O.P. won in 1948, it would have owed a tremendous debt to Wendell L. Willkie. A deficit of more than 11,000,000 votes was too much to overcome, but Willkie did win all the new votes to become the leading Republican vote getter of all time. His total of 22,300,000, against Roosevelt's 27,200,000, put his party within striking distance for 1944 or 1948. Both party totals fell in 1944, but Dewey was able to hold 22,000,000 while Roosevelt was dropping to 25,600,000. This meant that the Republicans were in striking distance for 1948, but it also meant that no automatic victory was assured.

Prior to Henry Wallace's announcement of independent candidacy, there were some political analysts who were saying categorically that such an announcement would make a Republican victory inevitable. That kind of statement simply did not take the figures into account. Such a result would necessarily have followed only if the Wallace movement could have been interpreted as a real split in the Democratic party—one assuming the proportions of the Republican split in 1912. Almost no observers were willing to suggest such an interpretation. Even if Wallace's effort should have approached the magnitude of La Follette's Progressive campaign of 1924 it would not necessarily have insured a Democratic defeat. La Follette polled 4,800,000 votes, but the major parties' totals were reduced only by 1,200,000, a number of little significance unless it should involve key states in a very close election.

This should have suggested that many of Wallace's votes would come from new votes and from other minor parties—a fact which might have worked to the disadvantage of the Republicans as well as the Democrats, for the Republicans had to get some new votes in order to win. They could not count upon an important reduction in the Democratic total to their own

advantage. In other words, Wallace or no Wallace, the Republicans, it seemed, would need close to 25,000,000 votes to win. As it worked out, there was something of a reduction in the popular vote of both parties, but the Democrats could stand the loss, and their loss did not turn to Republican gain.

Undoubtedly the Wallace vote was decisive in New York, but not because Democratic votes were attracted, but rather because of the vote of the American Labor Party. It cannot be assumed that all votes for Wallace would otherwise have been Democratic votes. They might have been most numerous, but there is no question that a number of the Wallace votes would otherwise have gone to other minor parties, and others—paradoxical though it may seem—were potential Republican votes. It should have been apparent to Republicans that any effort much less than Willkie's would have been insufficient. As it turned out, Dewey's effort at attracting new votes was even less successful than Landon's.

II

The tendency of a party to hold to its accumulated total of popular votes may have some interesting implications if the population approaches "staticity" with one party holding a decided advantage. It should be noted, however, that out of a potential voting population of some 90,000,000, the largest number of votes ever cast for President (1940) did not exceed 50,000,000. Here, incidentally, is one of the weaknesses of the "scientific sampling" opinion polls. To the extent that they are accurate in presenting the opinions of the whole population, they show the opinion of the non-voter as well as of the voter, and fail to take into account the fanaticism, complacency, the *inertia* of the voting population.

Again, it would seem to be very difficult to arrive at an accurate categorization of the population into the myriad of cross-cutting interest groups which form the bases for sampling. Similarly the claims of pressure groups must be recognized for the exaggerations which they often are. Imagine, for example, young John Doe, an ex-service man now living on his father's farm in Madison County, Indiana, and working in an Indianapolis aircraft factory. He is a member of the Farm Bureau, with his father, a member of a C.I.O. union at the

factory, of the American Legion, and of the Methodist Church. Now what happens when an important issue—universal military training, or farm price support—comes to public attention and discussion? Lines are formed, and soon officials of the Farm Bureau Federation are demanding, in the name of the 400,000 members, passage of the given measure; officials of the C.I.O., speaking for their 7,000,000 members, demand that the measure be killed; the national commander of the American Legion, representing 4,000,000 members of the Legion, urges support of the legislation; leaders of the Methodist Church, representing a membership of 8,000,000 condemn the program. Obviously all are not representing John Doe. And in the polls, will his views be represented by those voting as farmers, or as laborers, or as veterans, or as Methodists?

In no case should politics be regarded as an exact science. Where actions of human beings are involved, mechanistic rules cannot be applied. Such concepts of politics never ceased to annoy Woodrow Wilson. He spoke of it thus:

They speak of the "checks and balances" of the Constitution, and use to express their idea the simile of the organization of the universe, and particularly of the solar system—how by the attraction of gravitation the various parts are held in their orbits . . . And they constructed a government as they would have constructed an orrery—to display the laws of nature. Politics in their thought was a variety of mechanics. The Constitution was founded on the law of gravitation. The government was to exist and move by virtue of the efficiency of "checks and balances."

The trouble with the theory is that government is not a machine, but a living thing. It falls, not under the theory of the universe, but under the theory of organic life. It is accountable to Darwin, not to Newton. It is modified by its environment, necessitated by its tasks, shaped to its functions, by the sheer pressure of life.¹

And again:

Politics can be successfully studied only as life; as the vital embodiment of opinions, prejudices, sentiments, the product of human endeavor, and therefore full of human characteristics of whim and ignorance and half

¹ *The New Freedom* (New York, 1913), pp. 45-47.

knowledge; as a process of circumstance and of interacting impulses, a thing growing with thought and habit and social development—a thing various, complex, subtle, defying an analysis save that of insight. And the language of direct sight is the language of literature.²

III

Other traditions of American political history indicated the likelihood of a victory for President Truman. The Republicans, for example, have been successful only with candidates from the West (the political West being anything west of Pennsylvania)—except Theodore Roosevelt and Calvin Coolidge, both of whom were elected as incumbents after having succeeded to the presidency automatically from the vice presidency. Since 1844, the Democrats, on the other hand, have been successful heretofore only with candidates from the East. Now Harry Truman has taken advantage of the same kind of exception which favored Theodore Roosevelt and Calvin Coolidge.

One of Truman's greatest advantages was his incumbency. Excepting Van Buren in 1840, and Cleveland in 1888 (though he won the popular vote then), the Democrats never have failed to elect an incumbent—if he won the party's nomination. The Republicans have failed only with Benjamin Harrison in 1892, Taft in 1912 (when the party was split), and Hoover in 1932. Indeed, the greatest obstacle has been in securing the nomination. Of the six who preceded Truman in becoming president automatically from the vice-presidency, the first four—John Tyler, Millard Fillmore, Andrew Johnson, and Chester A. Arthur—were not nominated for a succeeding term. The other two—Roosevelt and Coolidge—were nominated, and were elected. On the other hand, only William Henry Harrison and Grover Cleveland were able to win after a previous defeat.

IV

The fact which seemed to point most clearly toward a G.O.P. victory in 1948 was the Republican control of Congress. It had become almost an axiom of American political history that whichever party won control of the House of Representatives after an off-year election would win the presidency in the next general election.

Republican prophets made much of the fact that since 1890 there has been no exception to this rule. It should be pointed out, however, that in 1912 it took a split in the Republican Party to bring about the result indicated by the Democratic congressional victory in 1910, and it took the intervention of Providence after the 1930 elections to give the Democrats control of the House after deaths among Republican congressmen-elect eliminated what would have been a Republican majority in the prelude to a Democratic victory in 1932.

Earlier exceptions to this rule had occurred in 1876, 1880, and 1888. But there were special circumstances surrounding two of these elections. That of 1876 was the disputed election between Rutherford B. Hayes and Samuel J. Tilden, and most rules were nullified in that strange result. Tilden received a popular plurality, and needed only one electoral vote to win, but twenty electoral votes remained in doubt. A special commission, voting eight to seven on all crucial points, awarded all the doubtful votes to Hayes and declared him elected by an electoral count of 185 to 184.

The Democrats had retained control of the House in 1886, but Cleveland failed of reelection in 1888. Ironically, his popular vote plurality was 75,000 greater than it had been when he was elected in the previous election, but he lost in the Electoral College. In 1880 the Republicans elected James A. Garfield after they had failed to win the House in 1878.

Another hopeful sign to the Republicans was that no party ever had been able to command a popular plurality for President more than four successive times. But this probably was more of coincidence than of significance for the present. Actually the Republicans elected six successive presidential candidates, from 1860 to 1880 inclusive, and if there had been no split in 1912 that year might well have seen the fifth in another string of victories. After the Federalist party had lost six straight presidential elections to the Jeffersonian Republicans, it disappeared as a political party. The modern Republican party, of course, never had been out of power except for two non-consecutive four-year periods under Cleveland, and for Wilson's eight years. Now they face a drought of twenty years. But as long as that party can recover enough to win Congress from time to time—as the Demo-

² *The Public Papers of Woodrow Wilson*, I, 196.

crats did in the post-Civil War period, and as long as it can run as close a race as it did in 1948, it need not fear an immediate death. But its continued life along the tradition which it has known since World War I is not assured.

V

Whoever invented the dictum, "As goes Maine, so goes the Nation," surely was a Republican propagandist. The only time, since 1880, that the state ever cast its electoral votes for a Democrat was in 1912 when Taft and Roosevelt divided the Republican vote. Doubtless the saying arose out of the practice of Maine's holding its state elections in September; it thus affords a preview of the November national elections. But there are other states which are far more reliable in reflecting national political trends. Interestingly enough one of the most accurate of these barometers is President Truman's home state of Missouri. Since it voted for William Jennings Bryan in 1900, Missouri never backed a loser.

Another border state, Maryland, had an even better record until it went for Dewey this year. Previously it had been on the band wagon every time since 1892. Except for its diversion to Dewey in 1944, Ohio likewise has voted with the winner since 1892. Ohio has been perhaps the most significant of the pivotal states. The election of Woodrow Wilson in 1916 turned upon it, for Ohio and New Hampshire were the only states north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi which he carried, and the loss of Ohio would have meant defeat. And this year, it was the vote of Ohio which convinced Dewey of his defeat and moved him to concede. Arizona and New Mexico have the distinction of never having voted for a loser—but they have been voting only since 1912.

VI

Another axiom of American politics had further demonstration, and may continue to have significance in 1952. No leader of the United States Senate ever has been elected President. True, several elected Presidents had served in the Senate, but none really could be described as a leader of that body. Only Garfield, Benjamin Harrison, and Harding had served in the Senate immediately preceding their election (Jackson resigned from the Senate in 1825 to launch his campaign for

1828); and none of these served more than one term. Senatorial giants like John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, Stephen A. Douglas, James G. Blaine, Hiram Johnson—and Arthur H. Vandenberg and Robert A. Taft—however much they pursued the office, never were quite able to make the grade.

A discussion of political traditions cannot omit mention of the military tradition. The election of an Eisenhower or a MacArthur would not have been contrary to historical tradition and it is a consideration which may yet become relevant in 1952. Nomination of a popular general was the only winning formula which the dissident elements of the old Whig Party ever was able to hit upon. There was a strong move to seek unity among Democrats in an Eisenhower nomination at the last moment, and such a move may appeal to one of the parties next time.

A war usually produces a hero who wins the presidency. The Revolution, of course, gave us Washington. From the War of 1812 there emerged two heroes who won the presidency subsequently: General Andrew Jackson ("Old Hickory") and General William Henry Harrison ("Old Tippecanoe"). Out of the Mexican War came two heroes who were nominated: General Winfield Scott and General Zachary Taylor, but only the latter ("Old Rough and Ready") was elected (Franklin Pierce had served as brigadier general in that war). A large number of generals emerged from the Civil War. The most notable, Grant, served two terms; Garfield had attained the rank of major general, and Benjamin Harrison had served as a brigadier general. In the Spanish-American War, Colonel Theodore Roosevelt captured the popular imagination as leader of the "Rough Riders." Only World War I failed to produce a major military figure who would become President, though some would say that Herbert Hoover, through his relief work, actually emerged as a popular hero of that war.

VII

Looking toward 1952, then, it may be suggested again that the Republicans will have to get about 25,000,000 popular votes if they are going to win—and they cannot rely upon third parties to help them too much. Results of the congressional elections in 1950 will give some

indication of Republican strength, but will not necessarily forecast what that strength will be in 1952. In speculating on possible candidates it will be well to watch a military hero like General Eisenhower, and to recognize the difficulty which a United States senator faces in trying to win the presidency. At the same time, it will be well to remember how heretofore the Republicans have needed a candidate from the West in order to win, and the Democrats have needed one from the East. And for a reflection of national trends, watch closely such states as

Missouri, Maryland, Ohio, Arizona, and New Mexico.

But these rules, too, shall in their turn be overcome by one party or the other. Political rules cannot be formulated as cold laws of physical science for unlimited application. But they can suggest trends and possibilities. A more judicious attention to trends and traditions of American political history would have kept many persons from going overboard with unqualified predictions of a Dewey landslide.

Raising the Stars and Stripes over the Louisiana Purchase

W. PALMER SMITH

Former Head, Department of Oral English, Boys High School, Brooklyn, New York

The official transfer of the Louisiana Purchase by France to the United States took place at New Orleans on December 20, 1803. The ceremonies were the consummation of the greatest real estate deal in history. How that deal was negotiated in Paris by the diplomats of the two nations in the spring of the same year, and how that great international problem was provoked by backwoodsmen of America is an absorbing story.

The frontier settlers along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers depended upon those waterways for trade and their very existence. For many years they received generous treatment from the Spaniards, even the "right of deposit," which meant the privilege of storing products in New Orleans warehouses until they could be loaded on ocean vessels. In 1800, when Napoleon Bonaparte, elated by his domination of Europe (except England), forced Spain, by secret treaty, to cede the Louisiana Territory to France, the Spanish Intendant at New Orleans, without authority and in violation of the pact of 1795, denied the "right of deposit" and closed the Mississippi to American commerce. This breach of contract, and the fear of continued control of the great west by France, roused the westerners to resist such interference, and they started drilling militia.

President Thomas Jefferson realized the danger of war, but believed it could be averted

if Napoleon were persuaded to sell New Orleans or a small piece of land at the mouth of the Mississippi to the United States; he sent instructions for such a proposal to Robert Livingston, our Minister to France. Livingston began presenting arguments to Count Talleyrand, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, but seemed to make little impression. To expedite the business Jefferson dispatched James Monroe as Livingston's colleague.

While Monroe was on the way, Napoleon decided he must raise funds for continuing his campaign against England, and directed Barbé-Marbois, his Minister of the Treasury, to open negotiations at once for the sale of the *entire* Louisiana Territory. Livingston was dazed by the offer. He was commissioned to buy a small city, or a strip of Gulf coast, not a region four times the size of France. However, he kept his head, and virtually effected the transaction on April 12th, the day of Monroe's arrival.

During the next fortnight the price was fixed at \$15,000,000 (less than four cents an acre), and early in May, in the presence of Napoleon, Robert Livingston, James Monroe, and Barbé-Marbois signed their names to the treaty of ten articles (antedated April 30, 1803) between the United States of America and the French Republic.

When President Jefferson was advised by Livingston of the possibility that Napoleon

might repudiate the pact, he summoned Congress in an extra session and secured its approval of the treaty on October 31st.

Most careful plans for the formality of assuming possession of Louisiana were made at Washington. The President commissioned William C. C. Claiborne, Governor of the Mississippi Territory, to take over the provisional government of the new province, and appointed General Wilkinson to assist with a quota of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee militiamen. On December 17th the troops camped on the east bank of the Mississippi two miles above New Orleans. Governor Claiborne and General Wilkinson, with an escort of thirty horsemen, rode into New Orleans on the 18th to make an official call upon the French Commissioner, Pierre Clement Laussat. Laussat returned the call the next day, and arrangements were completed for the procedure of transfer on the 20th.

New Orleans in those opening years of the nineteenth century was a growing city of about 8,000 population, and already had expanded beyond its ramparts, so that residence was described as "within the walls" or "outside the walls." Most of the people were Spanish or French, with the French predominating, and, as might be expected, the French had put the stamp of their national characteristics upon the city's architecture and customs.

The scene of the ceremony was the Place d'Armes, now Jackson Square. Then, as now, the Cathedral of St. Louis occupied the central site facing westward across the park to the present levee of the Mississippi. At the left of the Cathedral was the Convent of the Capuchin Nuns, and at the right was the famous Cabildo (Town House)—a goal of modern sightseers. Both the Cathedral and the Cabildo were designed by Don Andres Almonester, whose body reposes beneath the altar of the Cathedral. On the north and south sides of the Square were rows of handsome two storied brick buildings (also the work of Don Andres) with pointed roofs of red tile, and balconies with wrought iron balustrades—choice locations for retail trade, with residences above.

December 20th graced the event with brilliant sunshine and a summer-like sky. By 9 o'clock people began congregating in the Place d'Armes. It was a motley gathering; many

creoles of Spanish and French extraction, some English, Germans, exiled Acadians, Negroes (both free and slave), and a few Indians. Before noon every available space bordering the Park was packed; the balconies of the rows and the Cabildo were crowded with ladies dressed in silk, embroidery, and lace; and even the decks of the vessels moored at the levee were utilized by spectators. Every eye turned again and again to the French Tricolor, beautiful in the sunlight, floating from the staff in the center of the Place d'Armes. This was the last time it would be seen there. The onlookers wondered what changes the flag of the United States would bring to them.

About 11 o'clock, Commissioner Loussat rode into the Square accompanied by a squad of officers of gallant bearing, and several companies of infantry in red, white, and blue uniforms. Then cannon shots and a salute of twenty-four guns from the forts announced the approach of the Americans. Governor Claiborne and General Wilkinson, side by side, led the line from the river road, and were followed by twelve dragoons in red, four pieces of artillery, forty cannoneers, and two companies of foot soldiers. They stationed themselves opposite and facing the French troops. The fowling pieces and coonskin caps of some of the Americans did not compare with the equipment of the French, but they suggested more rugged endurance. They were on their best behavior, too, for General Wilkinson had warned them that misconduct would be disgraceful on such a day.

The Commissioners of the two nations dismounted, exchanged greetings, and with their staffs ascended the stairs of the Cabildo to the Council Chamber. All the dignitaries of the city, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, awaited them. Laussat took the center chair upon the dais, with Governor Claiborne on his right and General Wilkinson on the left.

Monsieur Laussat opened the ceremony by calling for a reading of the treaty of cession, first in French, then in English. Next he read his credentials empowering him to transfer the Louisiana Territory, and Governor Claiborne read his, entitling him to receive the Territory. Whereupon the French Commissioner presented Governor Claiborne with the keys of the five forts of the town tied with tricolor ribbon, after which he resigned the

center chair to Governor Claiborne. With the insignia of his authority in his possession, the new Governor addressed the assemblage in these words:

Fellow Citizens of Louisiana! Of the great and interesting event which is now fully consummated; an event so advantageous to yourselves, and so glorious to United America, I cannot forbear offering you my warmest congratulations. The wise policy of the Consul of France, has by the Cession of Louisiana to the United States, secured you a connection *beyond the reach of change*, and to your posterity the sure inheritance of Freedom. The American people receive you as Brothers, and will hasten to extend to you a participation in those valuable rights which have formed the basis of their own unexampled prosperity. Under the auspices of the American Government you may confidently rely upon the security of your Liberty, your property, and the religion of your choice. You may with equal certainty rest assured that your commerce will be promoted, and your agriculture cherished—in a word that your interest will be among the principal cares of the National Legislature. In return for these benefits the United States will be amply remunerated if your growing attachment to the Constitution of our Country, and your veneration for the principles on which it is founded, be duly proportioned to the blessings which they will confer.

Among your first duties, therefore, you should cultivate with assiduity among yourselves the advancement of Political information; you should guide the rising generation in the paths of republican economy and virtue, you should encourage Literature, for without the advantage of education, your descendants will be unable sufficiently to appreciate the intrinsic worth of the Government transmitted to them.

As for myself, fellow Citizens, receive a sincere assurance that during my continuance in the situation in which the President of the United States has been pleased to place me, every exertion will be made on my part, to foster your internal happiness, and to promote your general welfare, for it is by such measures alone, that I can secure to myself

the approbation of those great and just men who preside in the Council of our Nation.

Only a small part of the audience understood his sentences, but all caught the sincerity of his voice and manner.

Immediately after the address the three Commissioners signed the Document of Transfer, and then presented themselves on the central balcony of the Cabildo to indicate to the waiting throng that the agenda of the Council Chamber were accomplished. They promptly descended to the Square and crossed to the flag pole.

Laussat thanked his men saying:

Soldiers of New Orleans and of Louisiana, you have given proof of your great zeal and filial devotion to the French flag. I will bear it back to France and to its Government. In their names I give you thanks. Here are the Commissioners of the United States. To them I now resign command: obey them as you would the representatives of your legitimate sovereign. In conformity with the Treaty, I place the United States in possession of these countries and the dependencies of Louisiana.

The moment had come for the lowering of the Tricolor and the raising of the Stars and Stripes. It had been arranged to have the movements take place simultaneously. Two color sergeants manipulated the ropes so that the exchange was deliberate and synchronized, but as the two ensigns were midway on the staff there was a temporary difficulty with the lines, and in that pause the flags seemed to caress each other as though reluctant to separate. Soldiers saluted, men bared their heads, and women waved their handkerchiefs. A French officer received the Tricolor and bore it away through ranks of saluting militiamen; lusty hurrahs from American throats and a salvo of artillery hailed the Stars and Stripes as it reached the summit.

The Star-Spangled Banner was afloat over the Louisiana Territory, and the stage was set for America's great era of expansion.

How eagerly Thomas Jefferson at the White House must have awaited a report of that epochal flag raising! He hoped for news of it on Christmas Day, for in a letter to his daughter, Mary Jefferson Eppes, dated December 26th, 1803, he sent the following message to his two sons-in-law:

You may inform Mr. Eppes and Mr. Ran-

dolph that no mail arrived the last night from Natchez. I presume the great rains which have fallen have rendered some of the water-

courses impassable. On New Year's Day, however, we shall hear of the delivery of New Orleans to us.

The Adolescent in the Social Studies Classroom

DOROTHY LEGGITT

The Wydown School, Clayton, Missouri

The student during the period of adolescence is a unique individual. The pattern of each boy and girl is different from that of anyone else in the world. The adolescent develops continually; teen-age living serves as the motivation. Uniqueness of individuality plus the dynamic power of youth requires that the social studies teacher must concern herself with understanding the student.

Student Preview. To understand the unique student at any particular moment, two mental pictures must be observed. The one is the longitudinal view, which includes the records of past growth and a history of the changes which have taken place in the individual; these reveal the life of the student through the elementary school into the high school, showing the persons and environment and progress that influence the learning experiences. The other is the cross-sectional view, which focuses attention on the several areas of present living: personal, social, emotional, vocational, educational. All of these divisions, and more, need to be analyzed to view the totality of any student. Thus, for an understanding of the present self and of the immediate problems, a record of the past and an analysis of the present status become essential.

Intelligent study of the two pictures, longitudinal and cross-sectional, together with a clear knowledge of the possibilities in adulthood, constitute a challenge. A plan of self-direction to steer the student through life's privileges and obligations becomes inevitable.

A Pattern of Potentialities. Each student possesses a combination of potentialities (possibilities of development). In them, a pattern is discernible, a pattern which seems to be an individual plan of growth.

What does this blueprint mean in the development and direction of the high school student? To lead a successful life, the unique pattern of potentialities and the individual's plan for life should dovetail.

Heredity sets the bounds of what an individual is and of what he can become. A life plan that fits the possibilities for development must be designed. One must discover the strongest inclinations of the individual and help to develop them to the utmost.

Environment affords opportunities. The presence or lack of them is not the sole determiner of what the individual may become. Although environment—the home, the school, and the community—is as important as innate potentialities, it cannot develop what is not present; it cannot develop to a high degree what is present only in a low degree. The individual is not so much plastic under the stimuli and pressures of the environment as he is responsive in different ways to it.

An Integrated Personality. An individual is a whole, and not just the sum of a lot of parts. Without adequate knowledge of the significance of personality, a person may easily injure himself; with such awareness, he learns to understand both himself and others. If a person's traits are balanced—that is, if they work together in relative harmony—they represent the picture of an integrated personality. Integration, or balance, is a matter of degree; it ranges all the way from the complete poise of the perfectly integrated person to the definite unbalance of one who is mentally ill. An integrated personality becomes an ideal.

Adolescence. A person's life is divided into fairly well-defined stages of development: infancy, childhood, adolescence, maturity, and

senescence. Adolescence varies greatly among individuals with respect to time of onset, rhythm of growth, and duration. This period—about seven or eight years—occurs from twelve to twenty for the average individual. Adolescence ends with the general cessation of growth. There is an intensified self-consciousness and social consciousness at this teen-age time. The adolescent student indulges in new interests, new emotions, new powers, new activities. He becomes busy with preparation for adulthood.

In orientation during adolescence, the individual faces forward and backward, and in an attempt to visualize life during this period, he becomes occupied with himself. Because he finds the world opening before him, he possesses quickened sensitivity toward it as he sees, hears, touches, and experiences with new understanding. School subjects tend to open avenues hitherto burdensome. Life takes on a new poignancy as he becomes a participant in it. Yet, he seems unable to keep pace with his growth. Not fully comprehending his weaknesses and his strengths, he becomes frustrated and feels inadequate. In an attempt to visualize life during adolescence, the high school student becomes preoccupied with himself, the next few years becoming the proving ground.

Student Development. A unique individual by constantly interacting with his environment determines to a large degree the kind of life he wants to live. The particular forces operating with and around him determine his individuality. If he understands the life in which he lives and its processes, he can through insight and purposeful action design his personality.

Needs arise for the adolescent. As a growing, acting personality the needs of an individual may be classified as follows: he seeks to understand the world, to create his own values, to form his own judgments and regulate his own behavior, and to function in healthy independence of other people. These are normal characteristics, touching upon every aspect of student living.

Interests are the basis of motivation. Interests act as forces, exerting pressure. Behavior results include the acquisition of new information or skills, the engaging in certain activities, etc. Interests, therefore are directional forces.

All behavior moves toward certain goals, or purposes. The disturbed organism, seeking to regain balance, moves in certain directions, and whatever it does is purposive to the balance it wishes to restore. Behavior or activity is intentional, planned, and consciously discharged. This restored balance may be temporarily satisfying, and thus a minor purpose may be achieved; it may be for a period of time only partially satisfactory, but later quite satisfying. Thus, a larger purpose is set up.

A purpose, or a goal, seems to be central to the development of the individual. It is both the starting point of human activity and the end toward which it is moving. Growth is a continuous reformation of ever-higher purposes. When a purpose is satisfied, the organism develops into an integrated personality; but when the purpose is thwarted, disintegration begins and continues until a reconciliation has taken place.

School Experience. What is experience? Experience is an organic adjustment process of growth and development. It involves both the individual and some aspect of the environment. As these interact, each modifies the other, and a relationship is detected between the two. The result is experience.

Through experience, learning occurs. A student has a goal; he carries it out through some type of activity and completes the task; then, he possesses new knowledge. Specifically, the learner wishes to solve a problem, he figures it out, he gets the correct answer; he learns what to do and what not to do in solving this type of problem. Such an activity is a whole and carries with it an individualizing quality and self-sufficiency. It is an experience.

Information and solutions will vary with time, conditions, and individuals; and the selection of the necessary knowledge is a function of whatever is involved in the particular situation. The worth of experience and of subjects varies for individual minds. Even a book is suited to an individual with a particular problem.

Experiences tend to flow from one into another. They must be in sequence toward a given goal. This involves a relation to the past as well as to the on-going present and future. A clear line of continuity of experiences should guide

the selection of particular activities, leading to student behavior.

Guidance. Like classroom instruction and administration, as well as other aspects of modern education, guidance may be thought of as a service to students. A student should accept guidance as an opportunity whereby he can understand himself and prepare himself for living fully.

Guidance seeks to have the student become familiar with a wide range of information about himself, his interests, his abilities, his previous development, and plans for the future. It also seeks to help him become acquainted with the many problems he faces: educational, social, vocational, and recreational problems. On the basis of these two types of information and the assistance of guidance workers, the unique student realizes what his problems are and plans to solve them. Out of this training and experience in school, guidance aims to develop insight into the solution of problems of living as well as a creative initiative whereby the individual will throughout life be able to meet and solve problems adequately.

Guidance is based on the assumption that America has a place for everybody: a place in the social world, a place in the world of education, a place in the civic life, and a place in the vocational world. Thus, guidance helps a student to discover his talents in comparison to the opportunities of the world. The ultimate aim of all guidance is self-direction.

Self-Direction and a Behavior Pattern. Self-direction is an awakening of a student to a sense of responsibility for himself, together with the realization that through persistent study, applied specifically to the problems of his life, he can greatly improve his chances of finding a worthy place and making the most of himself. His growth in self-direction, confined even to the high school years, will add profit throughout life.

Each adolescent faces the challenge of being in a group, of winning social acceptance, of succeeding scholastically. Among the problems of normal youth are these:

- Finding a satisfying place among fellow youth
- Experiencing personal achievement
- Being able to establish and enjoy a happy home

Understanding and improving political and economic conditions

Maintaining health and maximum physical efficiency

Participating in enjoyable recreational activities

Resolving philosophical complexes

To solve problems successfully the student must memorize and employ a technique. A procedure may be the type in which questions are asked of oneself.

What is the specific problem?

What factors are involved in the problem?

What information is needed in the solution of this problem?

Where and how can the essential facts be secured?

To what extent are experience and best judgment utilized when facts are missing?

Who can help most in thinking about this problem?

The demands upon a student for self-direction become much greater as he grows during the adolescent period. In school, there is lessened direction by instructors. There are a widened sphere of activity and a greater variety of choice in courses and in co-curricular activities. In the community, there are fewer controls and guide-posts. Society solves only some of an individual's problems. Requisites to intelligent self-direction include: (1) knowledge of self, (2) understanding of techniques, (3) understanding of the nature of the social environment and the ability to participate effectively in group life, (4) utilization of the social heritage, (5) life goals, (6) standards of value, and (7) a problem approach to life adjustments.

In a successful personality, a behavior pattern functions. The unique student needs to be familiar with these significant factors in a behavior pattern:

The habit of acting on the basis of well-defined purposes

Socialized rather than unsocial behavior

Ability to make well-considered decisions independently

Sensitiveness to people and conditions in the environment as opposed to self-centeredness

Effective living demands the power of self-direction. Self-direction requires the under-

standing of self and of the world, as well as ability to meet and solve problems of living that result from the interaction of these factors. The objectives and services of guidance, the work of the school, are not fully achieved until each unique individual in it has mastered this science

and this art of self-direction. The teacher of the social studies has the responsibility of organizing the social sciences in such a manner as to afford the adolescent student the learning requisite to understanding himself as a unique individual functioning in American society.

Social Studies and the Public Schools

WILFRED BLACK

Grove City College, Grove City, Pennsylvania

The writer, an associate professor of history in a Pennsylvania liberal arts college with an enrollment of 1,500 students, has become concerned over the failure of his students to meet collegiate standards in American history during the current academic year. The course is required of almost all students on the campus. Former servicemen have usually met standards of scholarship, but the performance of this year's freshmen has been far below expectations. Such were the circumstances which prompted the following survey.

Of 330 students in the course, 84 per cent are freshmen, and 75 per cent are non-veterans. About 60 per cent are from high school graduating classes of 200 or under, while 20 per cent are from graduating classes ranging in number from 50 to 100. A total of 69 per cent of the students have entered college directly from high school; 9 per cent of the non-veterans remained away from college from one to three years. About 44 per cent of the veterans have been out of high school from one to two years, 33 per cent from two to three years, 9 per cent from three to four years, 5 per cent from four to five years, and 9 per cent from five to fifteen years. Moreover, 60 per cent of the class have been away from high school American history for no more than two years.

Twelve per cent of the students had two teachers during the year in which they studied American history in high school, and 5 per cent had from three to six teachers; 13 per cent had the athletic coach as their instructor in American history. When asked whether they felt adequate to meet college demands, 69 per cent replied in the negative! The survey further revealed that 67 per cent had only objective examinations in high school American history; 4

per cent were accustomed to subjective examinations, and 29 per cent had both types. In indicating their college majors 44 per cent have chosen business and secretarial subjects, 32 per cent various fields in liberal arts, 19 per cent science, and 5 per cent fine arts. The high percentage of business and science majors reflects the materialistic trend of American civilization. Such, then, is a cross-section of the students with whom the writer is working this year.

Of far greater value were the replies to the question, "What weaknesses were apparent in your high school course in American history?" The wide range of answers the writer has classified under five major headings.

- (1) *Ineffective teaching*46 per cent
Teacher poorly prepared; student instructors; "same old stuff presented in same old way"; lack of guidance; cheating in tests; poor discipline; rambling class discussion; poor personality of the teacher.
- (2) *Dull, dry, and boring*33 per cent
Excessive book-learning, dates, facts, and memorization; emphasis on political and military events; course lacking in interpretation.
- (3) *Examinations*20 per cent
Objective tests only; unable to present our views; examinations too easy.
- (4) *Methods*7 per cent
No lecturing; no outlining and instruction in taking of notes; no outside readings to enrich the course; no instruction on proper study habits.
- (5) *Lack of objectivity in presentation*
4 per cent
Too much glorification and idealism.

Only 6 per cent of the class were wholly satisfied with their high school preparation.

While there are limitations to a survey such as this, the general trend is significant. Students who received inadequate preparation in education during the war years are now entering college in greater numbers. Like other college professors, this writer has been gratified by the high quality of work turned out by veterans in recent years, but now, younger, more immature students impose new problems. Yet many of the difficulties confronting teachers today cannot be attributed merely to the aftermath of war.

Inherent weaknesses in secondary education necessitate remedial measures from responsible authorities. That there are too many second-rate teachers in social science there can be little doubt. In Pennsylvania the state must assume considerable responsibility for such a state of affairs since there is a serious defect in the system of accrediting teachers. The state prescribes that a teacher shall have nine semester hours of history, three of political science, three of economics, and three of sociology. This requirement is ludicrous! One semester in political science, another in economics, and still another in sociology are wholly inadequate. One can no more than skim the surface of these subjects in one semester, and many teachers meet only this minimum requirement.

One can expect little amelioration of this condition where the consolidation movement has lagged. As long as there are so many secondary schools with a small enrollment, teachers in such systems will be teaching subjects for which they are ill-prepared. Sometimes in order to accommodate students, colleges permit them to take the second semester in place of the first for one or more of these allied subjects. Although the legal requirement is met the prospective teacher has only a smattering of social science. The result is that students are victims of incompetent instruction rising out of the state's system of teacher certification.

Some teach, not out of love for their chosen profession, but merely for whatever financial remuneration they can gain. Others use the teaching profession to bridge the interval between graduation from college and the date for the consummation of marital or other plans.

In either eventuality, instructors lack enthusiasm for their profession, and they fail to instill into the student any real understanding and appreciation of the social studies. Colleges contribute to this condition when they encourage those who have neither the temperament nor the ability to teach. For such colleges, education has become a big business, and results are measured by the number of teachers processed.

In one locality where the writer taught, the high school athletic coach, who against his will was required to teach economics, relied solely on the textbook and the writer's notes and lesson plans for the presentation of that subject. Too many responsible authorities and administrators believe that anyone can teach history since it is not an exacting subject like mathematics and physics. Sobering should be the thought that it is the students of such teachers who suffer—the same students upon whose shoulders the responsibilities of citizenship will fall tomorrow.

Another deficiency of secondary education emanates from the use of student teachers. While it is a worthy objective to give prospective teachers an opportunity to practice-teach, frequently the supervisor delegates too much responsibility to the cadet teacher—responsibility which the former is happy to evade and which the latter is incapable of bearing. This means that college towns are hardest hit, and students in public schools are often the victims of incompetence. American businessmen are renowned for efficient methods of production and distribution but parents are willing to accept incompetency and inefficiency in the formal education of their sons and daughters. Many of them are aware of what is happening in the public schools. Many long for a return to so-called basic fundamentals, but they feel powerless to act since education has become so stereotyped by colleges, educational associations, and state legislatures.

Another major defect in secondary education is the frequent practice of teachers not to fail students who have been unable to meet basic requirements. One of the writer's students recently informed him: "Sure, I'm flunking your course in American history. I really failed it in high school, but the teacher promoted me so she would not have to bother with me another year." Education may be likened at times to an

assembly line where teachers annually slap the seal of approval on their products in order to make way for new material about to be processed. Again, the system has perpetrated an injustice on its student victims.

Serious in modern education is the sanctity which surrounds the objective examination. While its champions contend that it achieves a scientific, exacting, and wider sampling of what the student has learned, the fact remains that many teachers are too indolent to grade essay examinations. A student who is forced to accustom himself to expression solely in terms of true-false, matching, multiple-choice, and completion is due for bitter disappointment when he finishes school. Oh would that daily decisions could be made as easily as in these tests! Owing to these ouija board examinations, which play so conspicuous a role in contemporary education the student finds it increasingly difficult to express himself with any degree of proficiency, and truly one of the marks of any educated person is his ability to express himself well.

The common standard of measure today is whether the student knows the right answer. The tendency is to file encyclopedic knowledge in designated compartments of the human mind. There is practically no carry-over from the classroom in English to that in other subjects. The objective examination craze with which teachers are afflicted encourages this departmental knowledge. A happy medium is a combination of objective and subjective examinations. Each has its legitimate place, but too much reliance on one at the expense of the other distorts the student's training and thinking.

In his presentation of American history the writer emphasizes interpretation, but his students find it difficult to integrate knowledge because they have never had to do so before. Like automatons they are able only to "polly-parrot" factual information. History teachers focus too much attention on facts, dates, and battles. The old political school of interpretation is still in a majority. Those teachers who ignore social, economic, and cultural history are simply teaching "the same old stuff in the same old way," as several of the writer's students have expressed it.

There is no field in which teachers are any

more greatly needed than that of the social studies. Today's students will soon be called upon to play their role in the world of tomorrow; from all indications it will be a difficult role. The success of democracy depends much on a well-informed and intelligent citizenry. On few occasions has there been any greater challenge than that which confronts teachers of social science at the present time.

A word about the students themselves is in order. It is hard to realize that most of them are of the New Deal generation and lack a sense of individualism, accountability, and responsibility, characteristic of the older generation. For many of them, things have come easily. Upon entering college they expect to make grades as easily as they did in high school; often disappointment is in store for them. The role accorded to extra-curricular activities in education today outweighs scholastic considerations, and students develop a false sense of values. As Woodrow Wilson is once supposed to have said: "The side-shows are swallowing up the circus."

One may contend that the primary duty of high school is not to prepare students for college but rather for citizenship. The point is well taken, but there is good reason to believe that secondary education is not preparing students adequately for either. Education, many feel, needs a good, old-fashioned revival! School authorities are deviating too far from that which was long considered old-fashioned. The fundamentals of reading, writing, spelling, English, grammar, and composition are being relegated to the background in this twentieth-century attempt to streamline education through pupil activity and highly compressed courses with telegraphic questions and answers. A greater integration of knowledge is needed as never before—and what a golden opportunity for the teacher of social studies! Both scholarship and outside activities have a just place in any curriculum, but let those charged with the responsibility of formulating such a program exercise discretion as to the relative role assigned to each.

One must always remember that public schools owe far more to those who plan to attend college than that which they are now giving this group of students. Teachers of social science should do some lecturing in their

courses. Too often the teacher, a devotee of the textbook, fails to keep abreast with contemporary developments. In few fields is collateral reading any more essential than in the social studies, and in no field do developments change so rapidly. By presenting supplementary material in lecture form, the teacher can give stu-

dents an opportunity to take notes. A *limited* amount of lecturing is advisable in high school, and it should be accompanied by instruction in outlining. Such an approach surely places the non-college preparatory student at no disadvantage. At the same time the high school meets an important obligation to those who go on to college.

The United States and the Founding of the Czechoslovak Republic

J. PAUL SELSAM

Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania

Last year the Republic of Czechoslovakia celebrated three great anniversaries—the 600th anniversary of the founding of their famous university at Prague; the centenary of the Revolution of 1848 against the Hapsburg domination together with the Pan-slav Congress at Prague; and the thirtieth anniversary of the founding of the Republic. It is with the latter celebration that this article deals, for many important events in the birth of the Republic took place in the United States.

When the First World War broke out in 1914, many Czechs had to make the momentous decision of whether their loyalties would be to the Austrian state or to the Czech nation. Of the thousands who decided for the latter, two professors of the Charles University at Prague, Thomas G. Masaryk and Eduard Benes, were to play a conspicuous and decisive role in the creation of the new state. Masaryk had previously traveled widely abroad and had made many contacts with people in France, England and the United States who were interested in the Czechs and Slovaks. After making his decision Professor Masaryk got in touch with two English friends, Professor R. W. Seton-Watson and Mr. Wickham Steed, who worked with him to create public opinion on behalf of an independent state.¹ Soon an organization was created and propaganda for a free and unified state was under way. It was directed by Masaryk in England and by Benes and the young

Slovak astronomer and airman Stefanik in Paris; later Osusky, a Slovak lawyer from Chicago, became their delegate to Geneva and Bern. He maintained contacts with various places of importance, especially with Prague.² As Benes said: "Our main concern was to be recognized as an independent State among the Allied nations before the war was over. . . ."³

When the Tsarist regime was overthrown in Russia, Masaryk wanted to go there as soon as possible. Professor Seton-Watson helped him to arrange this journey by making the necessary contacts with the Foreign Office and Scotland Yard. In Russia Masaryk helped organize into the Czech Legions the Czech and Slovak prisoners who had escaped to the Russians.

While in Russia Masaryk thought that the war would end in 1918 so he felt it necessary to go to the United States.⁴ There were two important reasons for his coming: one, to seek the support of the government of the United States for an independent Czechoslovakia; two, to get the support of American Czechs, Slovaks and Ruthenians, for these numbered more than a million and a half.⁵ Dr. Benes felt that it was necessary to carry on propaganda work not only among the Americans as a whole, but also that it was "equally necessary to carry on propa-

² *Ibid.*, p. 22.

³ Eduard Benes, *My War Memoirs*, p. 415. Translated from the Czech by Paul Selver (London, 1928).

⁴ Thomas Garrigue Masaryk, *The Making of a State*, p. 208 (London, 1927).

⁵ Benes, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

¹ See R. W. Seton-Watson, *Masaryk in England* (New York, 1943).

ganda work among our actual fellow-countrymen in America in order to enlist the sympathies of our colony there for the liberation movement of the National Council in Paris."⁶ Masaryk was well-known here for he had visited the United States repeatedly since 1878.⁷ In 1902 he came to lecture at the University of Chicago, and had made the acquaintance of many of his fellow-countrymen at that time, and "their ideas had much in common with his. He was therefore acknowledged there from the very beginning, as the leading authority and head of the revolutionary movement, not only among the Czechs but very soon among the Slovaks as well."⁸

Masaryk's task in the United States was not too difficult for as early as August 18, 1914, the Czech National Alliance had been organized here to inform the American people about the situation in Europe and to demand independence for the Czechs. Out of this movement emerged the Czechoslovak National Council, formed at a meeting in the Cleveland Athletic Club in January, 1915. Plans were made to organize the Czechs and Slovaks throughout the country for unified action.⁹ "Great assistance was rendered to the movement," as Benes said, "by the Czechs in Cleveland who, in January 1916, under the able leadership of K. Bernreiter, devoted themselves to our cause and remained devoted to it until the end. Similar work was directed at Cedar Rapids by C. V. Svoboda and at Boston by Josef Kovar."¹⁰

Masaryk intended to make his visit to the United States rather brief, but he "soon found himself engaged in absolutely decisive undertakings on the American continent. The influence which he was able to exercise upon President Wilson came at the critical moment when the latter was supplementing the Fourteen Points by the Four Principles. Masaryk has put on record his admiration for the 'manly and honourable' way in which Wilson revised his original views, especially in regard to Austria-Hungary. There can, however, be little doubt that the main instrument in effecting this

change was Masaryk's own tactical skill, his marshalling of cogent arguments, and the care with which, in advance of his own decisive interviews, he primed some of the men whom he knew to enjoy great personal influence at the White House."¹¹

That Masaryk's influence was decisive can be seen by comparing the Four Principles with the Fourteen Points. One of the former stated "that all well-defined national elements shall be accorded the utmost possible satisfaction that can be accorded them without introducing new or perpetuating old elements of discord and antagonism." This is quite different from Point Ten of the Fourteen Points: "The peoples of Austria-Hungary, whose place among the nations we wish to see safeguarded and assured, would be accorded the freest opportunity of autonomous development."

While Masaryk was making progress with President Wilson, all was not harmonious within the ranks of these Slavic peoples themselves. Along with the rebirth of Czech national consciousness in the nineteenth century, there was a similar awakening among the Slovaks. Men like Stur, Kollar and Hurban wrote in Slovak and unconsciously sowed the seeds of Slovak nationalism.¹² Stur soon wrote that the language would not sever the Czechs and the Slovaks,¹³ but this became a divisive factor. Hence Masaryk was most interested in obtaining the support of the Slovaks and their cooperation in forming a united state, for without such a union a new state would be but a shadow, a constant source of friction and intrigue in the very heart of Europe. As early as October, 1915, the Slovak League had sent representatives to a joint conference with the National League. Albert Mamatez of Pittsburgh was president of the Slovak League and he, according to Benes, "rendered invaluable service." The Slovak Catholics were also led by a Pennsylvanian, Father Murgas.¹⁴ Finally, a meeting of representatives of American-Czech Associations and American-Slovak societies met with Professor Masaryk at Pittsburgh on June 30, 1918, to

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 100.

⁷ Masaryk, *op. cit.*, p. 212.

⁸ Benes, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

⁹ R. J. Kerner (Ed.), *Czechoslovakia, Twenty Years of Independence* (Berkeley, Calif., 1940) p. 73. See also Benes, *op. cit.*, p. 98.

¹⁰ Benes, *op. cit.*, p. 99.

¹¹ Seton-Watson, *Masaryk in England*, pp. 112-113. See also Masaryk, *The Making of a State*, pp. 273-283.

¹² Albert Prazak, "Czechs and Slovaks in the Revolution of 1848," *The Slavonic Review*, V, 566 and VII, 143-147.

¹³ *Ibid.*, VII, 147.

¹⁴ Benes, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

discuss the future structure of the hoped-for state. As a result of this meeting the Pittsburgh Agreement was drawn up with the original in Slovak.¹⁵

PITTSBURGH AGREEMENT

The representatives of the Slovak and Czech organizations in the United States, the Slovak League and the Czech National Alliance, have, in the presence of Professor Masaryk, chairman of the Czechoslovak National Council, discussed the Czechoslovak question and our programmatic manifestos hitherto, and have passed these resolutions:

We approve the political programme which aims at the union of Czechs and Slovaks in an independent State comprising the Czech territories and Slovakia.

Slovakia will have its own administrative arrangements, its assembly and its law-courts. Slovak will be the official language in schools, official departments and public life as a whole.

The Czechoslovak State will be a Republic, its constitution will be democratic.

The organization of the joint activities of Czechs and Slovaks in the United States will, according to necessity and any changes in the situation, be extended and adjusted by a common understanding.

Detailed stipulations concerning the establishment of the Czechoslovak State are left as matters to be settled by the liberated Czechs and Slovaks and their legal representatives.

It is not our purpose to deal with disagreement between the Czechs and the Slovaks which developed later in the new state, but it should be pointed out here that the agreement made in Pittsburgh was provisional in character. Furthermore, it was "made by American Czechs and Slovaks and not by residents of Bohemia and Slovakia."¹⁶ Masaryk was later charged with a breach of faith by a minority group of clerical Slovak separatists who claimed autonomy on the basis of the Pittsburgh Agreement,¹⁷

but it should be noted that "autonomy" is not so much as mentioned. The statement, too, that the Czechoslovak Republic was founded in Pittsburgh obviously has no foundation in fact, although the meeting here and the agreement reached did play an important part in the rise of the new State. As Masaryk said in his book, *The Making of a State*:

I signed the Convention between the Slovaks and the Czechs of America. It was concluded in order to appease a small Slovak faction which was dreaming of God knows what sort of independence for Slovakia, since the ideas of some Russian Slavophiles, and of Stur and Hurban-Vajansky, had taken root even among the American Slovaks. Therefore Czechs and Slovaks agreed upon the Convention which demanded for Slovakia an autonomous administration, a Diet and Courts of Law. I signed the Convention unhesitatingly as a local understanding between American Czechs and Slovaks upon the policy they were prepared to advocate. The other signatories were mainly American citizens, only two of them being non-Americans, though further signatures were afterwards added without authorization.¹⁸

Masaryk continued:

In the Convention it was laid down that the details of the Slovak political problem would be settled by the legal representatives of the Slovak people themselves, just as I subsequently made it clear that our Declaration of Independence was only a sketch of the future Constitution, and that the Constitution itself would be finally determined by the legal representatives of the people.¹⁹

That this Constitution would be strongly influenced by the United States is obvious. Masaryk's concept of American democracy was greatly influenced by his visit to the battlefield of Gettysburg in 1918 in company with Secretary of Agriculture David F. Houston and Mr. Charles R. Crane, who had established the Slavonic Foundation at the University of Chicago in 1901.²⁰ As Masaryk wrote:

Many monuments are there, great and small, but by no means monuments in honour only of one military commander, or even of sev-

¹⁵ Paul Selver, *Masaryk* (London, 1940), p. 283. The translation of the Pittsburgh Agreement given above is from Paul Selver, *Masaryk*, p. 283. A smoother translation can be found in S. Harrison Thomson, *Czechoslovakia in European History* (Princeton, N. J., 1943) p. 272.

¹⁶ Thomson, *op. cit.*, p. 272.

¹⁷ Selver, *op. cit.*, p. 283.

¹⁸ Masaryk, *The Making of a State*, p. 208.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 209.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 212.

eral. In this, too, the spirit of democracy finds expression. Lincoln's Gettysburg speech cannot be read without emotion—the speech which sums up American democracy in the well-known words, "Government of the People, by the People, for the People." . . . In the cemetery on the Gettysburg battlefield and in other places my mind often dwelt on the idea that our Czechoslovak State would resemble America in that we have no dynasty of our own and no liking for a foreign dynasty; that we have no aristocracy, no army and no military tradition.²¹

The Slovaks, however, were not the only national group involved in the creation of the new state. It was generally felt it should extend far enough to the east to include another Slavic group known as the Little Russians, Ruthenians, Ruthenes or Carpatho-Ukrainians. The dismemberment of Hungary, to whom they had been subjected, would raise the whole problem of their future. As Masaryk wrote: "In America the Little Russian emigrants from sub-Carpathian Ruthenia are numerous; and, as they were acquainted with the Slovaks and Czechs, I was soon in touch with them."²²

But there was no unity among them for some were pro-Russian, some pro-Magyar. "Politically," as Masaryk said, "few of them had any definite views."²³ There was lively agitation among them and finally a meeting of the Ruthene National Council was held at Homestead, Pennsylvania, where on July 23, 1918, a resolution embodying their political ideas was adopted. This resolution shows clearly the uncertainty about their future for it states that they should receive complete independence. If independence should not be practicable or possible, then they should be united with their fellow-kinsmen of Galicia and Bukovina. In case of the failure of such a union they should receive autonomy—evidently in some state, but none was mentioned. The state might even have been Hungary had it retained its old boundaries.²⁴

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 212-213.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 239.

²³ *Idem.*

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 240; Kamil Krofta, "Ruthenes, Czechs and Slovaks," *The Slavonic and East European Review*, XIII, 622. Krofta does not give the place of this meeting but Masaryk said it was held at Homestead.

On October 21, 1918, a week before the proclamation of Czechoslovak independence, "this resolution was submitted to President Wilson. When he pointed out that the first two proposals contained in the resolution did not meet with the sanction of the Allies, the Ruthene Council in America was induced to concentrate its efforts upon the third."²⁵ Soon after this the people of Carpatho-Ruthenia were accepted as a member of the Central European Union in the meeting held in Philadelphia under the chairmanship of Professor Masaryk. "The Ruthenes were thus recognized as a separate nation, entitled, in accordance with the principles of self determination, to decide freely as to their future and the form of government they desired."²⁶ Since independence seemed impracticable, the representatives of the Ruthenian National Council in America, headed by Dr. Zatkovic, began negotiations and discussions with Professor Masaryk with a view to incorporating Carpatho-Ruthenia in Czechoslovakia. Nothing was known about these negotiations when the Czechoslovak Republic was proclaimed at Prague on October 28, 1918.²⁷ A plebiscite was held among the Ruthenians in America, and a second congress was held at Scranton, Pennsylvania, on November 19, 1918. This congress passed a resolution in favor of joining the Czechoslovak Republic on a federalistic basis, with as full a measure of autonomy as circumstances would allow, and would include all the Ruthenian elements in Hungary.²⁸

Very little was known in Carpatho-Ruthenia of the action taken by the Ruthenians in the United States. In Europe there was even more disagreement and at Hust on January 21, 1919, a meeting issued a proclamation favoring union with the Ukraine. That this action did not really represent the wishes of the majority is seen later, for on May 5 a National *Rada* declared in favor of incorporation into Czechoslovakia along the lines provided for at Scranton.

²⁵ Krofta, *op. cit.*, p. 622.

²⁶ *Idem.*

²⁷ *Idem.*

²⁸ Selver, *op. cit.*, p. 284; Krofta, *op. cit.*, p. 622; Oscar Jaszi, "Sub-Carpathian Ruthenia," p. 203, in Kerner (Ed.), *Czechoslovakia*. Figures for the plebiscite or referendum vary slightly. Jaszi cites them as 67 per cent voting for union with Czechoslovakia, 28 per cent for union with the Ukraine, 2 per cent for complete independence, and 1 per cent for Hungary. Krofta gives 62 per cent, 28 per cent, 2 per cent and 1 per cent respectively.

ton.²⁹ In September, by official action of the Czechoslovak government, Carpatho - Ukraine was annexed as an "autonomous unit within the Czechoslovak state."³⁰ Dr. G. Zatkovic became the first Governor of Carpathian Ruthenia, as the province came to be called.³¹

Professor Masaryk was thinking not only of his own people but also of all the oppressed peoples of Europe. So well known was he that while in America he was elected president of the Democratic Union of Central Europe, which worked for the independence of the Poles, Lithuanians, Letts, Estonians, Ukrainians, Greeks, Italian irredentists, Albanians and others.³² In Philadelphia on October 26, 1918, the representatives of eighteen subject peoples of Central Europe promulgated a declaration of independence. So important did this event seem to an American writer that he said: "The reading of the new Declaration . . . while the newly fashioned Liberty Bell pealed above him was the crowning act of Dr. Masaryk's life."³³

²⁹ M. Hrushevsky, *A History of the Ukraine* (New Haven, 1941) p. 560; Masaryk, *op. cit.*, p. 240, gives the date as May 8.

³⁰ Hrushevsky, *op. cit.*, p. 560.

³¹ Selver, *op. cit.*, p. 284.

³² Vlastimil Kybal, *Les Origines Diplomatiques de L'Etat Tchecoslovaque* (Prague, 1929), p. 85.

³³ Herbert F. Sherwood, "A New Declaration of Independence," *The Outlook*, Nov. 13, 1918. Masaryk does not mention this episode in his *The Making of a State*.

At the Paris Peace Conference the new state was formally recognized. Professor Masaryk, while still in the United States, was acclaimed unanimously as the President by a National Assembly at Prague on November 14, 1918. When he resigned on December 14, 1935, after having been reelected, his successor was Professor Benes, his faithful co-worker during the trying and difficult days described above.

Masaryk's work in the United States was now done and he left New York on November 20, 1918. It must have been a touching day for him, for he wrote that: "On leaving the Vanderbilt Hotel I was surprised to find a detachment of American sailors awaiting me. They had been sent to render me my first military honours as President."³⁴

Some people might argue that the rebirth of Czechoslovakia was in the natural order of things; that when the nation expired at the battle of White Mountain in 1620 its independence was destined some day to be restored. But the statesmen of the Allied Powers had to be convinced that its restoration was for their best interests and thus for the best interests of the world. In this work Professors Masaryk and Benes played a conspicuous part, loyally supported by thousands of Americans of Slavic descent.

³⁴ *The Making of a State*, p. 286.

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH

Chairman, Social Studies Department, Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia

The Teachers' Page has been successful in calling forth the response of one teacher who possesses, as his past contributions to THE SOCIAL STUDIES testify, a crusading spirit. We give you his message:

Teachers should organize in their own schools and nationally to *educate adults primarily* to remove the causes of war, depressions, revolutions and dictatorships. Such adult education should lead to peaceful political action to democratize human relations.

Teachers interested in organizing to edu-

cate for peace and democracy should write to me. . .

Sincerely,

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Those interested in Mr. Guinness's "philosophy of democracy, peace and methods of such education" can refer to the following issues of THE SOCIAL STUDIES: December 1948, November 1947, January 1947, February 1946, and February 1940. Mr. Guinness's home address is 155 Frierson Avenue, Fort Myerson, Florida.

Education for peace and democracy is our big

job today. Someone might raise the question, however, as to how effective such education can be in the face of the forces in the world that work counter to it. That is a pessimistic point of view to which teachers, especially of the social studies, must never succumb. The true teacher must always be an optimist, for to teach is to pioneer and to lead, and no leader can afford to be a pessimist. It is true that to a large extent leadership seems to be taken out of the teacher's hands, for education in the schools tends to reflect the thinking of society. That is as it should be. But, education is more than merely passing on tradition. Education or teaching can and should be inspiring and point the way to a better and richer life. Education for peace and democracy is the better and richer life to which the teacher must lead his students. If he does that well, he is a pioneer and a leader.

* * *

Several months ago there appeared an interesting letter in one of our large metropolitan newspapers. It dealt with some aspects of teaching which were touched upon in the previous installments of "The Teachers' Page." The issues, stated and implied, have both economic and social significance. Below are a few excerpts from the letter:

I don't want my children educated by indifferent butterflies intending to quit teaching just as soon as they marry. I don't want them subjected to frustrated, misfit old maids who missed their chance. . . . I can't feel that they are capable of helping me to lead my children to a normal adult life.

With a little reflection, most of us will agree that our school days spent with such teachers were almost futile. I would prefer that my kids have mature well-adjusted married men for teachers—men who don't need a diverting outside job which reduces their teaching efficiency, men whose wives don't need to work in order that the family can eat, fathers with several children so that children become their very existence and not merely their job.

The letter was signed W. W. H. It is not known, therefore, whether the correspondent is a man or a woman, though it probably is the latter. Although at times critical of their biological opposites, most men are kinder in their criticism of women than are women who criti-

cize their own species. Be that as it may, the letter touches upon some vital issues related to teaching, namely: Do men make better teachers than women? Are married teachers better than single teachers for children? Are teachers who are themselves parents better teachers than those who have no children of their own? Are non-married women teachers past a given age (a relative term) necessarily the old maid type—frustrated and misfit? In fairness to the weaker sex, a parallel question might be raised: are non-married male teachers (the sworn bachelor type) frustrated and misfit? Finally, should single women, girls just out of college (the "butterflies" to whom W. W. H. refers), who plan to quit as soon as they marry, be discouraged from teaching?

Much has been written about many of these issues, yet they are still with us today. If any of them seem to be dead, they are not really. They have been laid to rest only until they are resurrected by appropriate economic and political events. There isn't too much objection today, for example, about whether married women should be allowed to teach. There was still less objection during the war when jobs were going begging and men to fill them were scarce. But, go back a few years to the depression of the 1930's and the issue was a very "hot one." Will it be so again if and when economic conditions should change for the worse?

There are a number of different considerations involved in each of the issues raised. Some, like married women teaching during a depression, concern primarily economics. Some center around tradition. Others involve pet ideas that characterize the thinking of most people. The revelations and discoveries in modern psychology also throw some interesting lights and shadows. To what degree if any, for example, are non-married men and women, of an age when they would normally be married, frustrated and misfit? If they are, does that necessarily make them poor teachers? Psychologists would think so, but do we have experimental evidence to support such a conclusion? Some would not require further evidence. They feel that the facts already available from clinical and other studies of personality, show that inevitably an emotionally frustrated person influences adversely those with whom he comes in contact.

But, we still don't know, some would argue, whether, single persons are necessarily more frustrated than married persons. Even if we generalize in favor of the married, it would still be necessary to evaluate each individual on his own merits. The husband with a nagging wife, or a wife with a faithless husband might be more frustrated emotionally than perhaps an unmarried male or female teacher.

It is interesting in this connection to note a recently published book entitled: *Modern Woman: The Lost Sex*.¹ The authors propose the thesis that in spite of the greater freedom acquired by women today, they are basically more frustrated and less happy. Their contention is that both men and women are by nature

cut out for certain types of work. For the woman, it is most natural to be a wife and mother. No matter how much sublimation may take place in the performance of culturally satisfying jobs held by women, the sublimation is never complete, which leaves the unmarried woman basically frustrated and unhappy. The authors do indicate that certain professions are more conducive to successful sublimation than others, nursing and teaching being two such professions for the woman.

It is perhaps trite to say that ours is a rapidly changing society. Yet it is, and many of our traditions and beliefs are tottering under the changes. Economics has forced woman out of the home into the working world, of which teaching is an important phase. What should our thinking and actions be towards some of these and other issues we touched upon relating to teaching?

¹Ferdinand Lundberg and Marynia F. Farnham. *Modern Woman: The Lost Sex*. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947).

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

British Information Services
30 Rockefeller Plaza,
New York 20, N. Y.

Six films about Britain. 16 mm. sound film. Running time: 13 minutes each. Rental \$2.50 per film. Sale price \$29.75 per film, \$157.50 for complete set.

These films may be useful to teachers of the social studies:

1. *Lowlands of Scotland*.

The border country extends from Glasgow to Edinburgh.

2. *Midland Journey*.

In the Midlands are the home of Shakespeare, industrial towns and pasture lands.

3. *So This Is London*

4. *Ulster Story*

Ulster is known for its small farms, popular resorts and famous legends.

5. *The Way to the West*

Because of their association with adventures on the sea, Cornwall and Devon are regarded as being on the way to the west.

6. *Welsh Magic*

Wales is renowned for its mountains and

valleys, its coal mines and its musical voices.

Steps of the Ballet. A Crown Production. 16 mm. sound film. Running time: 23 minutes. Rental \$3.75. Stills are available of this film.

In teaching the rudiments of the ballet to youngsters, this film explains each position, movement, and step in detail and then combines them in the finished ballet. It also explains the work of the choreographer, the composer, the designer and the dancers.

Colour in Clay. 16 mm. sound film in technicolor. One reel—11 minutes. For sale only \$50.00. Stills are available on this film.

Combining art and science, this story of modern pottery shows the clay being processed by the potter's wheel and the turner's lathe. The pottery is baked in electrically heated ovens, then decorated either by transfer or by freehand painting and finally glazed.

School in Cologne. 16 mm. film. Running time 15 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Stills are available on this film. Produced by the Crown Film Unit.

The difficulties which handicap the rebuilding of the educational system in Germany are both physical and economic. Most of the school buildings were partially destroyed by bombs. During the winter their classrooms are icy cold. Material is meagre, there being few pencils, copy books or text books. Lack of clothes decreases the attendance of some, while on the other hand need for shelter while their parents work outside of their homes, increases the presence of pre-school children in the regular school rooms.

Food for Asia. 16 mm. film. Running time 10 minutes. Rental: \$1.25.

Many of the countries of the Far East depend almost entirely on rice for their food supply. However, during the Japanese occupation, these rice fields were destroyed. Today, two objectives must be attained in order to feed these people: the acreage for growing rice must be increased and production must be accelerated so that by trade the people may obtain sustenance.

Voices of Malaya. 16 mm. film. 35 minutes. Rental \$5.00. Stills are available on this film.

Malaya is still suffering the effects of war, famine, and political upheaval. Its population of five million people consists of Malays, Chinese, Indians and Europeans who are working together striving for the peace and prosperity of their country.

Filmstrips and Other Pictorial Material from Britain, 1949. Revision No. 1.—35 mm. Each filmstrip with a study guide. Sales price \$1.00.

The filmstrips, which vary in length from twenty-six to sixty-six frames, cover a wider variety of subjects including education, health, and colonial development.

For example those on health include *African Doctors in Training* (at the Nigeria School of Medicine), *The Colonies Fight Leprosy* (in Nigeria), *British Health Services*, *Britain Fights Sleeping Sickness*, *Health Centre*, and *Malaria*.

The following film strips have been prepared for American distribution by the Society for Visual Education, and may be obtained from British Information Services at \$3.00 per print:

Beautiful Britain
The British People

British Ports

Ceylon

Crown and Commonwealth

General Election in Britain

Housing in West Africa

Land of Britain: London

Land of Britain: Scottish Highlands

Land of Britain: Scottish Lowlands

Land of Britain: South Country

Land of Britain: Southwest

Oxford and Cambridge Universities

Zanzibar

Poster Card Sets (B. I. S.)

Available free of charge to schools and public libraries (12" x 15")

English Law

Britain's Parliament

Education in Britain

British West Africa

Britain's Trade and World Prosperity

Posters and Maps

Available free of charge.

Picture Sets \$1.00 per set.

Illustrating subjects of historical and current interest, they include the following:

Britain Leads in Jet Propulsion

Britain's New Plan for Coal

The British China Clay Industry

The Carpet Industry in British Colonial Empire: Introducing the Colonies.

The Decoration of English Pottery

English School Girl

Gold Mining in Fiji

A Harvest Saved

Land of Britain:

East Anglia

London

Midlands

Northeast Country

Northern Ireland

Northwest

Scottish Highlands

Scottish Lowlands

South Country

Local Government

Model Parliamentary Procedure

Modern China Making

National Parks

Pioneer Health Centre

Port of Southampton

Queens of the Sea

Royal House of Windsor

Royal Wedding Day
Toward Self-Government in West Africa
Training for Industry
Twentieth Century Farming
£25,000,000 Food Plan

Once Upon a Time. 16 mm. sound film. Running time: 14 minutes. Rental \$2.50. Stills of this film are available.

This film traces the historical growth of England's clock industry. Two interesting events mentioned are the building of the Greenwich Observatory in Charles II's reign, and the development of an efficient ship's clock in 1764.

Technicolor Cartoons:

In these cartoons, Charley represents the average Briton.

Your Very Good Health. 10 minutes, Rental \$2.50.

In this propaganda film advocating socialized medicine, Charley is told how the Health Act will affect him and his family.

Charley's March of Time. 9 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

This film shows Charley how the National Insurance Act protects him against the fear of sickness, unemployment and old age.

New Town. 9 minutes. Rental \$2.50.

Town planning is the theme of this film. Disgusted with the crowded, ugly, smokey towns created by the Industrial Revolution, Charley dreams up a new planned town with spacious residential areas, convenient shopping and amusement centers and modern, healthy factories.

Young America Films, Inc.

18 East 41st Street

New York 17, N. Y.

Five 16 mm. films available for purchase or rental: *Light and Shadow.* One reel \$40.00.

Designed for elementary school science classes, this film defines the terms transparent, translucent, opaque and luminous. It also explains the transmission and reflection of light rays.

Transmission of Rotary Motion: One reel. \$40.00.

Adapted to the secondary school, this film explains the way in which power is transmitted by means of shafts, gears, belts and chains.

Transfer of Heat. One reel. \$40.00.

This film is suitable for upper elementary and secondary school classes. It discusses the prin-

ciples of conduction, convection, and radiation, illustrating each with concrete examples.

We Visit the Seashore. One reel. \$40.00.

In order to stimulate oral and written language activity this primary grade film shows a typical day's activities of two little children at the seashore.

Let's Look at the Animals. One reel. \$40.00.

As a supplementary aid to the units on animals and how they are adapted to their environments, this animated film is arranged to complement the work of grades one and two.

Solids, Liquids, and Gases. One reel. Purchase Price \$40.00.

Introduces to the middle elementary grades the idea that all matter exists in three forms—solid, liquid, or gas—and demonstrates that a substance can be changed from one form to another depending upon the presence or absence of heat.

Water Works For Us. One reel. \$40.00.

The various ways in which water works for us in every day life are explained for the middle elementary grades.

What Is a Map. One reel. Sound. \$40.00.

The social studies classes in the middle grades of the elementary school may be introduced to the understanding of maps by this film which shows a little girl who tries to write a description of her bedroom to a friend.

The principle of the map is presented by explaining the plan of a living room, followed by the lay-out of a neighborhood.

Chess Fundamentals. One and one half reels.

Running time: 15 minutes. Available for rental from most state and commercial rental libraries. Prints may be purchased at \$48.00 each.

Of special interest to community youth and adult groups, hobby and recreational groups, this film introduces its audience to the game of chess. It explains the name and function of each chess piece and the principles of the game. The film also emphasizes the enjoyment to be derived from playing chess.

Shakespeare Series. Consists of eight black and white filmstrips, each running from 40 to 60 frames in length. \$22.50 per set of eight filmstrips with Teacher's Guide. Individual Filmstrips from the series \$3.50 each.

Adapted for junior-senior high school and undergraduate college English classes, these

filmstrips give a picture of Shakespeare's life and times, of the construction of the Globe Theatre and of six of his important plays. The latter were made from recent theatrical motion pictures of Shakespeare's plays, such as Laurence Olivier's *Hamlet* and *Henry V* and Orson Welles' *Macbeth*.

The eight filmstrips include the following:

An Introduction to William Shakespeare (41 frames). A brief survey of the life and times of Shakespeare.

Shakespeare's Theatre (43 frames) A description of the essential characteristics and parts of the Globe Theatre and the record of how one class built a model of the Globe.

Hamlet (60 frames).

As You Like It (50 frames).

Henry V (42 frames).

Romeo and Juliet (62 frames).

Macbeth (45 frames).

A Midsummer-Night's Dream (53 frames).

Each of the six titles tells the complete story of its respective play, and quotes its famous lines.

People Are People the World Over. A series of six filmstrips based on thirteen picture stories published in 1948-1949 by the Ladies' Home Journal. Price of series \$16.50. Separate titles \$3.50 each.

The titles are:

Part I: *Introduction, How They Farm, and Their Food*.

Part II: *How They Shop and Their Kitchens*.

Part III: *How They Bathe and At Bedtime*.

Part IV: *How They Get Around and How They Worship*.

Part V: *How They Study and At Home*.

This story in six parts presents the problems and interests of twelve families in various parts of the world for the use of social studies classes in the upper elementary grades and in junior high school.

Y A. F. Professional Filmstrips:

A series of five filmstrips has been prepared for teacher-training classes and adult groups. Five filmstrips at \$4.00 per set. Single filmstrips \$1.00 per print.

The set consists of the following:

The Slidefilm in Teaching

The Large-City Audio-Visual Aids Organization

The Small-City Audio-Visual Aids Department

The College Audio-Visual Center

The County Audio-Visual Service Program

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News and Comments

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

ON TAKING COURSES IN EDUCATION

In mid-summer, as this is being written, thousands upon thousands of hapless teachers are plodding the corridors and campuses of scores of university summer schools from Maine to California. What are they doing in these centers of culture—deepening their understanding and appreciation of humanity and of the greatest products of the arts and sciences through the years? Broadening their knowledge of the world about which they teach or enlarging the scope of their intellectual interests? In general, no. A small minority may be doing these things but by far the greater part are running back and forth in a narrow and well-worn path.

They are taking professional education courses.

This almost endless process is comparable to the labors of a man who eats a slice of bread one crumb at a time. The bread itself is necessary to his welfare and he eats it by choice because he needs it. If it is served to him crumb by crumb he must needs eat it so, no matter how he may inwardly rebel at the wasted motion, loss of time and dreary repetitiveness of the process, in which incidentally all the savor of the bread is lost. He comes to feel that the only reason for serving it thus is to give a greater appearance of importance and bulk to the slice and delude him into believing he is eating more bread than he really is. Soon he loses his fondness for

bread entirely and continues to eat it reluctantly and perhaps with a growing inability to digest it.

Every teacher who has qualified for a certificate and subsequently gone on to take a graduate major in education, whether for an advanced degree or merely for credits to earn an increment, will recognize the point of this figure of speech. The crumbs he eats seem to grow constantly smaller and more than ever like all the preceding crumbs; yet there are always more of them. In other words, there is a point of diminishing returns in the effort to make professional education as a technic appear as broad and deep a subject for study as the sciences and humanities. In the case of most teachers that point is reached, or should be, long before it is recognized by those who direct our colleges and universities or by our state and local authorities who compel or bribe teachers to go on taking courses in education.

The truth of the matter is that the mechanics of school-teaching, as distinct from what is taught, is a comparatively narrow field. Success in it depends to a very large extent on the personality and character of the teacher. That part of a good teacher's skill in teaching which can be gained in advance or augmented by courses in education is rather small. Probably all the professional information which a teacher needs could be provided in a maximum of forty semester hours if they were efficiently planned and presented. Unfortunately such a small program seems to be impracticable. In the first place, it fails to provide the basis for dignifying "education" as a career. Although the really great teachers of history were thought of as scholars and philosophers, today they would have to be "educators" in order to achieve professional recognition. In the second place, such a program would fall far short of supporting the products of the educational machine who now subsist by teaching other teachers; nor would it bring to our colleges the lucrative flow of summer and part-time course-takers who help balance academic budgets. In the third place certainly most top-level people in the public school field sincerely believe that the plethora of professional courses—the succession of minutely broken-up crumbs—are necessary to a teacher's improvement and are a worthy form of scholarship in themselves.

For this reason our teachers continue to attend classes and take courses with such titles as:

Techniques of the Interview
Experimental Educational Psychology
The Improvement of Instruction in Junior Business Education
Improvement of Instruction in Transcription
Participation of Teachers in Democratic Administration
Seminar in Nursery Education
The Unit Method in the Secondary School
Fundamentals of Education for the Air Age
Practicum in Elementary Education
Creative Expression
Current Trends in Elementary Education
Professional Orientation of the Teacher
Social Education
Modern Tendencies in American Education

This list was culled from the catalogs of three schools of education and could be extended indefinitely. The impressiveness of most of the course titles does not hide certain facts which are well known to any intelligent teacher:

(1) The courses in any modern school of education duplicate themselves in content to an astounding degree, despite differences in title;

(2) The actual amount of new, practical and valuable information contained in most education courses could be effectively presented in a very small fraction of the time actually consumed;

(3) There is very little in most of these courses which a teacher could not learn better, more cheaply and less painfully by the perusal of a few good professional books and periodicals;

(4) The basic principles of good and effective teaching are nowhere violated so flagrantly as in many of our professional courses of education.

It is difficult to see how education can truly achieve recognition as a profession when its practitioners must become, not scholars, humanists and philosophers, but experts on Mother Goose, the Morris Plan, the best methods of cleaning blackboard erasers, and how to calculate the coefficient of correlation between a spelling test and a sociogram, if any. Our original slice of bread remains but one slice no matter how finely we crumble it and how pompously we

serve the crumbs with sauce. Our teachers need the slice but they need some butter on it and a good meal to go with it. Must we continue to delude ourselves that education, as such, is a full and balanced diet? It is essentially a technic, like salesmanship; as such, the formal training of "how" should be practical and reasonably brief. Like the good salesman, the teacher needs most a thorough and up-to-date knowledge of his product and his market. He does not require voluminous, detailed and repetitious lectures on how to sell, how to make out reports and how to display his wares. Let our science teachers spend their summers in laboratories and industries, our librarians visiting libraries and reading, our guidance directors in social service agencies and our social studies teachers in travel or some type of governmental employment. The schools of education may suffer but the school children will not.

JUDGE BOK AND FREEDOM OF THE PRESS

In *Harper's* for July, Bernard De Voto wrote an excellent article on the subject of freedom of speech and press. He dealt in particular with the often-vexing question of obscenity in books and with Judge Curtis Bok's recent decision in Philadelphia. Mr. De Voto's analysis of Judge Bok's decision shows the latter to be a legal landmark which may help clarify the whole problem of censorship throughout the country. As a social problem of great antiquity, censorship has had a very checkered career in the United States. What could be printed a century ago may be of doubtful legality today, or the reverse may be true. What is acceptable to the courts of one jurisdiction may be actionable in the courts of another; some communities, such as Boston, have gained notoriety as a paradise for censors. Most of our censorship difficulties have arisen over moral rather than political issues, fortunately, but the same question underlies both fields—to what extent does government have the right to limit a man's publication of his ideas and thoughts on any subject? The same general principles should apply whether the subject matter is political, religious, moral or imaginative.

Judge Bok's decision was handed down in a case in which the Philadelphia vice squad, for reasons best known to its superiors, raided several respectable book stores and seized a number

of novels which could be bought practically anywhere in the country and had been highly praised by book reviewers. The publishers defended their books in court and Judge Bok decided there was no obscenity in the eyes of the law. The importance of his decision, as Mr. De Voto points out, lies in the cogent thought and solid foundation of the decision. It was not merely a judgment of the moral merits of the particular books involved but reasoned argument defining the government's right as a censor.

Judge Bok held that all definitions of the term "obscenity" are subjective and uncertain and that any effort to apply it to books merely reflects the personal feelings of the person doing so. This leads to arbitrary and improper interference with free speech, since the law has no power to punish an author for his thoughts or ideas. Hence, Judge Bok stated, to prove that a book is obscene within the scope of the law it must be proved that it incited someone to "the commission or the imminence of commission of criminal behavior. . . . Publication alone can have no such automatic effect." Here is a clear, objective and workable test, not only for obscenity cases, but for all kinds of publications. The question is not what the author wrote as interpreted by the opinions of judge or prosecutor, but what criminal acts were done as a result of someone's reading what was written. Lack of good taste and purity of mind is not criminal and it is not the government's right or duty to protect the citizens against it so far as printed matter is concerned. No one is compelled to read an objectionable book.

So far as the protection of young children against obscenity goes, Judge Bok's decision should be an aid rather than a hindrance. For one thing, it should make easier the suppression of objectionable "comic books" which may not be in any sense obscene but which have often been shown to have led directly to an act of delinquency. One is reminded of numerous cases where young law-breakers have said that they obtained their inspiration and information from comics. And as for salacious and lewd "literature," it still remains the duty of parents to supervise and guide their children's reading habits. Nothing the law could possibly do in a free country can take the place of parental guidance as a protection for young minds.

Judge Bok's decision clarifies the whole field of thinking about free speech. It goes beyond the area of "obscene" literature to include and define the limits of free speech and press in all connections. Political ideas which run counter to the majority's opinions, as well as religious, racial or moral writings, must be subject only to the censorship of public judgment. Only when they demonstrably incite to criminal action should the power of government to suppress be invoked. When we permit one man or

several men to decide what is suitable or proper for other men to read with regard to sex we are making an exception to the general principle of free speech. It is not too far a step from this to other exceptions, all based on the plea that the people must be afforded protection against wicked ideas. The only safe and democratic defense against contamination of the mind is a sound and healthy mind, just as a sound and healthy body is its own best bulwark against invading germs.

Book Reviews and Notes

Edited by DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

Social Disorganization. By Robert E. L. Faris. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948. Pp. 481. \$4.50.

Dr. Faris set for himself the task of assembling the basic sociology of disorganization "in an objective and organized presentation." He did achieve his goal upon a high level of scholarship, with the use of the context of broad causal base, and in an interesting manner of writing that is quite within the grasp of the college or advanced high school student.

The materials are presented in fifteen chapters, in nine of which the topics usual to such works are treated — personal disorganization, mental abnormality, suicide, the vices, crime, and the disorganization of the family, economic, and political institutions. The remaining six chapters are the distinctive and most valuable parts of the work, in the opinion of this reviewer. In the first two chapters Dr. Faris defines and describes the nature of both social organization and social disorganization, making excellent use of illustrative materials from the literature of anthropology, current folk societies, and modern events. Criteria are carefully chosen and the contrast is made vivid. The eleventh chapter is an unusual inclusion and presents clearly the "collective behavior"—"institutionalization" sequence of change in religious institutions. The thirteenth chapter orients mass behavior and mob violence to the background conditions for social change.

But it is in the last two chapters that Dr. Faris makes a real contribution to the literature of this field. Carefully delineated emphasis upon the processes of social reorganization as a part of the social change complex is overdue and welcome, and the author's concern with the prospects for cultural stability in our own society will prove stimulating to students. Yet, it is in this latter section that this reviewer's negative criticisms lie—that revolutions do not revolutionize (p. 439) is open to attack; that the American nation is "so responsive to the public will that old-fashioned revolutions from despotism are inappropriate and unnecessary" (p. 440) is inharmonious with other conclusions and data in the book (as well as counter to opinion generally held by students in this field); the treatment of ideologies is very inadequate even for a general text; and, finally, the pessimism held concerning the possibility of reconstructing "a system which could be called a civilization" in the dreaded eventuality of a third World War is probably unwarranted. Man's power to reproduce, to learn, his current geographic distribution, and the wide diffusion of knowledge and libraries seem to argue brighter possibilities than depicted.

These criticisms aside, it is a very excellent piece of work and usable either on the college or secondary level.

FORREST D. KELLOGG
State Teachers College
Cortland, New York

The Roots of Prejudice Against the Negro in the United States. By Naomi Friedman Goldstein. Boston, Massachusetts: Boston University Press, 1948. Pp.vi, 213. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The untimely death of Dr. Naomi Friedman Goldstein in 1946, at the age of 26, deprived the world of a young social scientist of great promise. In this doctoral thesis she has used a scientific, yet exceedingly sensitive and human, approach to one of the most important problems in American life today. The test of democracy is the treatment of minorities.

This young, brilliant, honest analyst, of broad scholarship and great ability, has drawn freely from the various disciplines—anthropology, sociology, history, and social psychology—the findings which are so germane to the roots of prejudice against the Negro.

In a most convincing manner she delineates the many facets of a problem that must be faced with increasing courage by America in its bid for moral leadership in the world today.

The several hundred well-selected references used by Dr. Goldstein give some indication of the prodigious job that she has done. In her search for the roots of prejudice, we have a history of the defense of inequality and exploitation.

One by one Dr. Goldstein takes apart the fallacies about race that have imbedded themselves in the warp and woof of American life and, with a maturity and keenness far beyond her years, lays bare the twisted thinking from which they have originated and been perpetuated.

Her analysis of development of prejudices toward the Negro in the pre-Civil War period, during the war, and in the Reconstruction period, with the attendant myths and attitudes that have come down to the present, is well worth careful study. Few Americans are aware of the extent to which our prejudices have been written into the law of the land.

Dr. Goldstein sheds new light on the implications of our nostalgic picture of the old South, the suppression of the role of the Negro in seeking his own freedom, the myth of the sadness of the slaves because "massa's in the cold, cold ground." She explains the development of the picture of the contented slave, the brute Negro of the Reconstruction, and the later emphasis

on the comic and ludicrous picture of Negro life.

Perhaps a summary statement is made in her observation: "The history of Negro-white relations in the United States, based on the institutions of slavery, has established a pecking-order in which the Negro represents the lowest rank, upon whom all may peck, with social approval and freedom of fear from censure. The post-war period, however, assures us neither social approval nor freedom from censure of the whole world."

TANNER G. DUCKREY

Assistant to the
Board of Superintendents
School District of
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

U. S. A.: An American History for the Upper Grades. By Harold U. Faulkner, Tyler Kepnew and Victor E. Pitkin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948. Revised Edition. Pp. 630. \$1.80.

Two high school teachers have here collaborated with a college professor in an attempt to provide a practical classroom approach to the complex story of "U. S. A." While the title makes reference to the "Upper Grades," the authors have aimed definitely for the junior high school level. The resultant attempt to simplify both the style and material has not been altogether successful. At times, the short, rather choppy sentences and telescoped generalizations tend to be mere words, rather than concepts.

Using the unit as a framework for the factual material, the book begins with the colonial period, and proceeds through the usual material up to, and including part of, the problems of the first Truman administration. The emphasis is placed on the understanding of our country's development as an aid to promoting further progress and as an orientation of the United States in the world. Aiding in this latter aim are unusually complete references to comparable and contrasting history in both Latin America and Canada, which have been substituted for less vital discussions of tariffs, monetary problems, and details of military and presidential campaigns.

The outstanding features of the book as a text are two. First, there are great numbers of illustrations, original drawings, copies of paint-

ings, maps and excellent graphs and charts in both text and appendix. All are easily understood and clear. These are not just "fill-ins," but are often cross-referenced to the text, and are an integral part of each unit. Use of source material at the beginning of each unit, such as the excerpt from the diary of a member of Magellan's expedition, etc., contribute to the feeling of "I was there!"

Secondly, each chapter is followed by the usual short list of terms and dates, and in addition, a group of questions which are not strictly factual, but try to tie past and present together and to challenge thinking. The question "Why did Latin American continue to have revolutions for many years, while the United States did not?" is a sample. Each unit is summarized briefly in numbered paragraphs, followed by suggested activities both individual and committee, and a list of books. These latter lists are very valuable, in that they are divided into sub-sections of books for information, about people, and of fiction; and each title is followed by a one-sentence description of its contents.

The organizations of the text provides a challenge to the student, aside from the general historical material, for even the table of contents gives a challenging bird's-eye view of the whole by giving the title of the units and sub-titles of chapters in simple sentences which may clarify relationships. For example, Unit One, "The Peoples of Europe Open Up the New World," includes such chapter-headings as "The Awakening Old World Discovers the Strange New World"; and "Settlers Follow in the Path of Explorers"; etc.

As a whole, this is a book whose successful use depends largely on the skill of the individual teacher. It will not "teach itself." There are many proper names and dates which presume either a class which has had training in American history previously, or a classroom teacher who will work in close collaboration with the book in explanation and expansion of its points. However in addition to the merits of organization and approach, "U. S. A." provides an ample and outstanding collection of source material for such a teacher.

HOWARD DRAKE

Chairman, Social Studies Department
Lansdowne High School
Lansdowne, Pennsylvania

Education for All American Children. By the Education Policies Commission, N.E.A. Washington, D. C.: 1948. Pp. 299. \$1.75.

This is the third volume in a series issued by The Educational Policies Commission. This volume fits in between the other two: *Education for All American Youth* (1944) and *Educational Services for Younger Children* (1945). In this study the emphasis is on the elementary schools from the kindergarten through the sixth grade.

The first half of the book is based on speculation and hope as to what elementary schools may become in the future. It describes the schools advocated by the commission as they might appear to an observer in 1958. Part II of the volume reports on observations of the best practices in elementary schools as they are going on today.

The report includes a brief statement of the activating goals of education in and for a democratic world, a preview of what can be achieved by concerted and enlightened effort on the part of community, administrators and teachers toward those goals, and reports of efforts toward them already succeeding.

One reads here, hopefully, of an ideal school system based upon larger administrative units, adequately supported by the community of which it is an integral, cooperative part, meeting its needs and utilizing its resources. The vital, extended curriculum is planned by administrators, teachers, and community representatives. The problem of teacher supply is met by making the profession attractive and challenging, extending possibilities alike of professional growth and of service and help to pupils and public.

Here is no vague effusion of ideals, but a chart of what must be done, however large the step; what can be done, if the laborer be worthy of his hire. One notes incidentally that progressive education is not dead.

Chairman
Department Social Science
Somerset High School
Somerset, Pennsylvania

BESSIE LONG

Palestine Dilemma: Arab Rights versus Zionist Aspirations. By Frank C. Sakran. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948. Pp. xxi. \$3.25.

The book purports to be an objective review of the whole Palestinian problem. Sakran claims that despite the flood of literature on the subject, the Arab side has not been adequately presented in this country and that facts favorable to the Arabs have been ignored or minimized.

He then proceeds to do the things he accuses the anti-Arab group of doing. Facts are distorted and facts favorable to the Jews are omitted. The book is fundamentally a piece of Arab propaganda. The propaganda device of card-stacking is used throughout. For example, Sakran states that Palestine and the surrounding countries are inhabited by Arab peoples who speak *one* language and have identical customs, traditions, and religion. He emphasizes the artificiality of these boundaries, stating that Palestine is not a geographic or ethnic entity, nor has it been politically independent since the Christian era. But he doesn't follow his own logic and advocate one Arab state for the whole region.

Even when he is describing the land and its resources, Sakran is constantly inserting statements such as "Palestine is too small to be a state." He mentions the orange industry, which has grown considerably since the British occupation began in 1917 until Palestine became in 1939 the world's second largest citrus-exporting country, but he does not mention the work of the Jews in establishing this industry.

Sakran goes into great detail concerning the McMahon Pledge, the Sykes-Picot Agreement, and the Balfour Declaration. He attempts to build up a case that the Arabs have been betrayed and refuses to recognize the validity of the Balfour Declaration with its influence on the British mandate. He glosses over the fact that Syria, Lebanon, Transjordan have since become independent, and that over 95 per cent of the territory Hussein demanded in 1915 is now independent. It would be hard to find another group which has won as much from the victories of other nations as the Arabs have.

In giving the history of the Zionist Movement, Sakran continues his pattern by giving great emphasis to the view of the American Council for Judaism.

In the case of the Grand Mufti, Sakran completely perverts his motives and ignores his activities. He omits completely the fact that the

Grand Mufti had collaborated with Hitler, had been active in stirring up pro-Nazi sentiment in the Near East, and is considered to be one of the major war criminals of World War II. Sakran also fails to mention the passive attitude of the Arabs when Rommel was threatening in North Africa, and the active participation of the Palestinian Jews in the success of the British campaign.

In giving his account of the vote in U. N. regarding partition, Sakran states that Russia supported partition because it would make it possible for Communism to take root in Palestine, and he asserts that its "citizens present or future are mostly east Europeans, steeped in the communistic doctrine and tradition." It is significant that in the past election held in Israel, the Communists polled 3 per cent of the total vote cast and many of these were Arab votes.

In his last chapter Sakran raises a number of hypothetical questions, all of which are answered by implication in a negative way to show that Israel cannot succeed and become a social, economic, or political entity.

Since the book was published more than thirty nations have given either *de facto* or *de jure* recognition to Israel. An election has been held and the new state is formally launched. History will tell who is right.

HARRY RANTZ

Olney High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The People's Choice. By Paul F. Lazarsfeld, Bernard Berelson, and Hazel Gaudet. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. x, 178. \$2.75.

This book is a study of how the voter makes up his mind in a presidential campaign. It uses the panel technique, or repeated interviews with the same group of voters, in Erie County, Ohio, in the campaigns of 1940 and 1944.

Erie County is described with the background of events during the campaign. The next three chapters deal with social and ideological differences between the parties, and the voters' degree of participation in the election. The material is excellently summarized by bar graphs throughout the book. The S. E. S., or Socio-Economic Status level, is explained, which, with religion, and other factors help to make up the I. P. P.,

or Index of Political Predisposition. Interest in an election is shown to be greatest with the best educated, those of better economic standing, and those of greater age. Women are less inclined to vote than men.

People listen to the propaganda that best suits their political predisposition and tend to reject that which conflicts with it, so propaganda serves mainly to re-enforce the voters' existing views. Unchallenged propaganda is most effective; the radio is more effective than the printed page; and personal contact is the most effective of all. Family and social groups are very important.

The 1944 study largely supports that of 1940, its emphasis being on party changers, who are not supposed to change in the last few weeks of the campaign (1948 may challenge this as well as the supposed tendency to vote for the winner). Party changers are not the thoughtful, independent voters but the ones least concerned about the election.

This work reveals many significant psychological facts on public opinion which will be of much value in fields other than politics. The panel method, while not perfect of course, shows great promise of future use on a wider scale.

CRAWFORD SENSENIG

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Lincoln Under Enemy Fire. By John H. Cramer. University Station, Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1948. Pp. v, 138. \$2.50.

The author of this book has explored another neglected phase of the Lincoln legend. Lincoln, the only President in office to expose himself to enemy fire, is the theme of the book.

How and when did it happen? It was on the occasion of the dramatic and sudden dash by General Jubal A. Early toward Washington in the hope that reinforcements sent by Grant would arrive too late to save the Northern capital. By masterful strategy and good fortune, no considerable opposition stood in the way of the Confederate drive.

Although Washington was in a state of alarm, the city was not wholly unprepared. The Union soldiers were commanded by able officers, and the Sixth Corps, sent by Grant, was on its

way to reinforce the weak defenders of the city.

Early decided to attack the Union forces in probing moves to test the strength of his enemy's defense. Fort Stevens, which guarded one of the approaches to the city of Washington, was open for attack. Here on July 11 and 12, 1864, Lincoln exposed himself recklessly to the fire of the enemy sharpshooters. As to what actually happened on that memorable occasion the historical evidence is not clear.

Who was the bold and impudent person to give an order to the Commander-in-Chief to get down from the parapet with the words: "Get down, you fool?" Was it Captain Holmes, later to become the great and beloved Justice of the Supreme Court? There is some evidence to prove the point, but it is not conclusive.

The author then plays the role of the historical detective in running down clue after clue to find out the true facts and expose the false. He scrupulously avoids definitive statements unsupported by conclusive evidence. To the reader is assigned the duty of making sound generalizations from the material carefully gathered and sifted out by the author.

The reader will not find much in the content of the book that is of great value. Rather, his major interest will be in the fascinating and scholarly method used by a patient and painstaking historian.

G. S. GREENE

Germantown High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Do Your Own Thinking. By C. H. Scherf. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948. Pp. 356. Illustrated. \$2.40.

One of our basic problems in education today is to find reliable study aids, especially designed to help young people discover and develop the full range of their interests and abilities through participation in thinking, doing and evaluating. We want them to be able to face situations as they find them in our ever-changing world, and we want them to be able to solve their problems as they meet them, however complex their problems may be.

To do this they must be self-contained, self-composed, open-minded individuals, who have acquired the ability to think clearly and logically in any given situation. They must possess an undergirding of ethical principles that will

sustain them when they are in agreement with only two or three, and they must likewise possess sufficient flexibility and courage to alter their positions when the viewpoints they formerly held are no longer tenable.

This is the goal toward which we must work with concerted effort if we are to entertain the slightest hope of equipping our young people with the kind of behavior patterns and thinking processes that will enable them to develop into mature personalities, capable of making decisions on the basis of fact rather than on the basis of preconceived notions, prejudices, propaganda, or heresay.

Toward the achievement of this objective, C. H. Scherf has made a valuable contribution to the literature of the guidance field in his book entitled *Do Your Own Thinking*, recently published by Whittlesey House of the McGraw-Hill Book Company. The style of the book is candid and clear, and its language is exceptionally well adapted to the reading level of the adolescent student.

The book makes a natural approach to the problem of human behavior through the medium of good common sense. In steps of logical concepts of general psychology and mental sequence it weaves together the fundamental hygiene so convincingly as to leave the unmistakable impression that we can make our minds work for us if we are willing to expend the effort necessary to learn and put into action the principles which govern our mental processes and ultimately determine our emotional and intellectual stature.

To make his points clear, the author uses examples and illustrative materials that young people will understand. Furthermore, (possibly for the benefit of the poor reader, of whom he appears to be ever conscious) he concludes each chapter with a summary and a series of thought-provoking questions for group discussion. A number of self-testing devices are also included.

Do Your Own Thinking furnishes an ever-present aid for the busy guidance counselor, and useful for stimulating guidance discussions as well as for reference purposes. Its chief teacher, and adviser. It should be most helpful value, however, lies in the fact that, if it is used wisely, it can contribute immeasurably toward

helping young people grow up with free and healthy minds into straight-thinking, emotionally stable human beings.

Dean of Boys

S. ERNEST KILGORE

McCaskey High School

Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Education for International Understanding in American Schools: Suggestions and Recommendations. By the Committee on International Relations of the N. E. A. Publications. Washington, D. C.: 1948. Pp. vi, 241. \$1.00.

In presenting this volume, the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association with the cooperation of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the National Council for the Social Studies, has performed an urgently needed service.

The specific assignment of the first-named committee was "to make a thorough study of the part that American schools could, and should, play in the maintenance of peace." This task appears to have been carried out in a highly satisfactory manner. One of the guarantees of such accomplishment was the close association with the committee of William G. Carr, associate secretary of the National Education Association, and long connected with the functioning of education in the international scene.

In the words of Warren R. Austin, United States Representative at the United Nations: "This is a book for people who want to do something practical for peace and human progress."

The "Challenge" to teachers on all levels is well stated but hardly new. What is new, however, and definitely worth while is the "Marks of the World-Minded Man," as set forth in Chapter II. Here is the practical yardstick by which all activities of the schools must be evaluated.

After a discussion, possibly a bit tedious at times, of each of the ten "Marks," the committee has done a brilliant piece of work by listing and briefly describing many dozen examples of actual projects now being carried on in schools all over the land, activities thrilling to read about. Here lies the answer to those who say that there is so little than any school or any teacher can do. From the first grade through the high school, the interested administrator and teacher will find examples from which may

be adapted activities suitable to schools of any type or size in any city or small community. The way has been blazed for those who are seeking the trail to the development of the "world-minded" individual.

It may be a source of regret to some to find that no easily understood organizational chart of the United Nations is included. In light of the discussion in the volume such a diagram should be helpful.

An adequate list of films, film strips, charts, etc., is included and the teacher should find this very useful.

GEORGE R. CRESSMAN

Head, Department of Education
State Teachers College
West Chester, Pennsylvania

Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1946-1947. Volume 44. Parts I and II. Edited by George I. Oeste. Menasha, Wisconsin: George Banta Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. viii, 130. \$1.00.

Part I entitled *Building Better World Relationships*, consists of four stimulating articles. They are, "You and the Fifty-Four Nations," by Harry J. Carman, Dean of Columbia College; "The Problem of Human Rights in International Relationships," by José A. Mora, a member of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations; "Citizenship in a Modern Democratic Society," by Roy A. Price, of Syracuse University; and finally, "Are We Being Realistic in the Teaching of Social Studies?" by W. Linwood Chase, of Boston University.

The first two of the above articles treat our world responsibilities; the last two deal with our citizenship responsibilities as Americans.

Part II is an excellent volume on teaching local history in today's world. It takes up this subject under five headings. The first, called "General Aspects of the Problem," consists of three articles. They are "A Survey of Current Practices in Teaching State and Local History," by Mary E. Cunningham, Editor of *American Heritage*; "State and Local History in Relation to National and International Affairs," by S. K. Stevens, State Historian of Pennsylvania; and "Reconstruction After Five Wars, the Lessons Maryland Offers," by Harry Bard, curriculum specialist, Baltimore Public Schools.

The second section treats with experiences

in teaching local history in the Atlantic Middle States and contains an enlightening discussion of procedures and experiments used in teaching local history in Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, and the District of Columbia.

The remaining articles take up the teaching of local history at the college level and the teaching of community relationships in the elementary schools. At the end, there is an interesting account of historic Strawberry Mansion in Philadelphia.

RAYMOND J. HOOD

Simon Gratz High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Historical Sociology: Its Origins and Development. By Harry Elmer Barnes. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. x, 186. \$3.00.

In the three major divisions of this small book, Professor Barnes traces the rise of historical sociology from classical times to its relative decline in the twentieth century, summarizes the contributions which contemporary writers in this field have made to our knowledge of the development of societies and institutions, and indicates some practical applications to the great problems of our time.

Historical sociology is apparently to be defined as the study of the laws, uniformities or processes operating in the origins and development of societies and institutions. It is distinguished, on the one hand, from social history by its generalizing, systematic character and, on the other hand, from the old philosophy of history by its more objective, scientific approach. The writer in this field, however, appears frequently to run the risk of blurring these distinctions—especially when he attempts to erect a sociological generalization upon the historical analysis of only one or two concrete cases; or when he unconsciously permits a preconceived theme or scheme to influence his interpretation of the data. Moreover, one gains the impression from this volume that historical sociology is in large measure composed of anthropological theory. Part I, the largest single section of the book, is devoted almost exclusively to a summary of trends in ethnological theory ranging from the nineteenth century evolutionary and comparative school through the critical historical reaction to the recent ap-

pearance of "culturology" or science of culture. Placing this material under the aegis of historical sociology reflects the convergence of cultural anthropology and sociology in modern times.

Part II, on the other hand, deals with writings which many students may regard as more genuine examples of historical sociology, although a large proportion of them should, in the strict sense, be classified as philosophy of history or social history.

As an objective characterization of the field of historical sociology the book could have ended with the conclusion of Part II. Barnes, however, in the last section, projects the cultural lag theory in the grand manner. All the world revolutions of history result apparently from the discrepancy in the rate of change of material and non-material culture. The great problems of our age arise from the wide gap between twentieth century technology and eighteenth century social institutions and ideologies. Although Barnes, here, as usual, is provocative, the critical reader may feel that this interpretation is too facile. He may wonder how these "applications" are deduced from the principles of historical sociology. And he may object to the polemical nature of the whole chapter.

FREDERICK B. PARKER

University of Delaware
Newark, Delaware

Government and Politics Abroad. Edited by Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1948. Pp. 586. \$5.00.

This book professes to "express, as a textbook, the latest trends in the field of Comparative Government and Politics in the most important states of today," including those countries and regions usually formerly ignored entirely or at least partly overlooked in other texts, that is, Russia, Spain, Portugal, the Scandinavian and Baltic States, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, the Balkans, and Latin America. For this purpose, the authors have furnished "summaries of recent events and the trends observable in these events." They have by no means confined themselves to government and politics; much valuable economic information is interwoven in the analysis of each country. The question of population pressure of the

influences of climate and other population problems, as well as the distribution of wealth and income and the debtor and creditor position of each country are carefully discussed and evaluated, frequently in apt phrases, such as the "democratic humanitarianism of Great Britain."

The summaries showing the geopolitical position of France and other countries are particularly valuable and pertinent. The transformation of the German Reich from a federal state to a highly centralized unitary one is well depicted and the affairs of the changes in Germany during the past three years ably delineated.

The part devoted to Russia is written with singular detachment, the statistical data showing the self-sufficiency of the various nations discussed; that on Italy on page 230 is particularly pertinent.

While the bibliographies are adequate, mention might have been made under that for Yugoslavia of the admirable study on that country made by Kenneth S. Patton, for ten years United States Consul General there, published by the United States Department of Commerce. The volume issued by the same Department on Great Britain is also omitted.

To this reviewer, who first went to South America (Uruguay) forty years ago, the Latin-American part of this book is by no means up to the level of the remainder of the book. The statement on page 565 that Brazil had no large Indian population when European settlement began does not agree with this reviewer's study of this subject made in the course of seven visits to Brazil. Mention might have been made of the many metals and minerals discovered and developed in Brazil during World War II, which have so materially altered her economic position. The growing importance of Argentina's mineral industry is not alluded to. Something might have been said on page 544 in regard to the early Pan-American commercial contacts, beginning with Brazil and the United States in 1792, Uruguay in 1798, Argentina in 1800, etc. Has Argentina a larger percentage of European blood than Uruguay? (page 559) Has Great Britain ever spent a single farthing "to acquire more good will in Latin America?" (page 550)

The bibliography on Latin America on pages 570-571 appears to this reviewer lacking in

many essential features. None of the writings of Heliolobo are included or those of Chilean Alejandro Alvarez. The *Hispanic-American Historical Review* is not mentioned. At least one work of Latin-American literature or poetry, such as the late Missaques Blake Poor's "Pan-American Poems," would have improved the value of the bibliography. Somewhere in the Latin-American section at least two or three lines could have been added about interchange of students between the United States and Latin America, which began with Brazil in 1799 and Cuba in 1802.

CHARLES LYON CHANDLER

Head, Department of Political Science
Ursinus College
Collegeville, Pennsylvania

A Guide to Public Opinion Polls. By George Gallup. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. 117. \$2.50.

Since the presidential election in November, public interest in the poll-takers has zoomed, and Messrs. Gallup, Roper and others have found themselves on the defensive in explaining their techniques as well as their results.

It is interesting to speculate whether this little book, which is a completely revised edition of the 1944 publication of the same name, will need further revision in the near future. If its date for publication had been scheduled for November 2, 1948, would it have been permitted to come from the printers in its present form? In commenting about the *Literary Digest* poll of 1936, Mr. Gallup says:

Today it is unthinkable that in any national election a modern polling organization could make an error as great as that registered by the *Literary Digest* in 1936; for that matter, it is highly improbable that an error half as great as that of the *Literary Digest* could be made by modern polling procedures.

Such a statement probably has given Dr. Gallup uncomfortable moments since November 2, 1948; but it must be remembered that the *Literary Digest* prediction in 1936 made an error of 19 percentage points, whereas the *percentage* of error in 1948 was not nearly so great. However, the positiveness of the above quotation does seem to rub one the wrong way. One almost feels that the author considers modern polling procedures so purely scientific that the

possibility of making an error—and by that we mean picking the wrong winner—is unthinkable.

The author has organized his work into a series of questions and answers, eighty-five of them, to be exact. The questions deal with thirteen general categories:

1. The function of public opinion polls
2. Size of the sample
3. The cross section
4. The problem of questions
5. Interviewers and interviewing problems
6. Polling accuracy
7. Election predictions
8. Interpretation and reporting of results
9. Significance of public opinion poll results
10. Polling and the processes of democracy
11. Measurement of the intensity of opinion
12. Miscellaneous problems of public opinion
13. Polling in foreign countries

The individual questions and answers are quite straightforward and direct. For example, here are portions of question and answer number 11:

Q. "Why haven't I been interviewed? Why have I never heard of anyone who has been interviewed?"

A. "These questions come up frequently in connection with modern public opinion surveys, because *most persons do not understand how it is possible to get an accurate measurement of public opinion when only a small part of the total population is interviewed.*"

(The underlining is that of the reviewer.)

The answer goes on further to state that modern polls rely for their accuracy on a *small but representative cross section* of the people, rather than on a *large number* of people. Of course, the 1948 failure by the poll-takers must have occurred either because the cross section was unrepresentative or because the people in the cross section doublecrossed the pollsters by changing their minds on election day.

It might be well for Dr. Gallup and the others who say that they use in their public opinion research only well-established, scientific procedures used in the fields of engineering, medicine, education and the social sciences, to realize that most human beings are rather unscientific creatures who often say one thing and mean another, whose opinions are often not black or white but a middling gray, and who may not

definitely decide for whom they will vote until they are face to face with the ballot on election day.

Would *A Guide to Public Opinion Polls* be of value to the classroom teacher? Yes, and senior high school students of American history or those studying Problems of American Democracy would also find it helpful; for here is a little book which says that by "scientific" polling procedures the desires and decisions of the American people can be accurately predicted; and then events following the publication of the book prove how wrong the so-called experts can be.

MERRILL L. WALRATH

State Teachers College
Cortland, New York

How We Became Americans. By Robert K. Speer, Ray Lussenhop, and Lena S. Blanton. New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., 1947. Pp. 376. Illustrated. \$3.50.

This book is one of a series, titled Better Living Series, and is edited by Dr. Robert K. Speer, Professor of Elementary Education at New York University.

Good texts in the social studies are rare, especially for the elementary schools. Hence it is with pleasure that this reviewer freely recommends it to teachers and administrators on the grounds of originality, readability and sympathetic understanding for the needs of youth.

The book is divided into ten units, with a lucidity and comprehension that is evident as soon as one begins to read its pages. Each unit treats a particular phase of growth from earliest times to the present, in such a way as to give the students a clear, compact picture of development. The authors have also skillfully interrelated the various units emphasizing the dependence and relation of each phase. That which makes it more interesting for elementary youth is that interesting anecdotes and incidents are dramatically interwoven in the context.

The language is simple and easily understandable. It seems to be written in a flowing style very much like a narrative, a factor that adds to its enjoyment. The title headings of units and sub-divisions are interesting and thought provoking. The "Things to Remember" summation at the end of each unit is skilfully

done, and deserves commendation for succinctness and clarity.

The text is one that should be of great help in the elementary social studies curriculum. It is hoped that the other texts in the Better Living Series are as interesting and stimulating as *How We Became Americans*.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior-Senior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

A Job for Every Woman. By Louise M. Neuschutz. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1948. Pp. xvii, 206. \$3.00.

Unlike the usual book on vocations, this one is written for those women who unexpectedly find themselves faced with the need to earn money. They may be girls forced to leave school before their training is completed, mothers who must earn within the home, or older women who suddenly need to become self supporting. The book is written for women who face unemployment as well as for those who have had no training or previous work experience.

A brief introductory chapter advises the worker to study her personality, aptitudes and the job regulations of her state. After these general admonitions a number of chapters are devoted to a discussion of possible fields of work. Among those mentioned are: "Helping Busy Mothers," "Helping the Sick," "Food Services," "Organizing Lectures," "Entertainment," "Needlecraft," "Interior Decoration," and "A Small Business of Your Own." Suggestions are given for needed training in such areas as interior decoration and handicrafts and a partial list of places to obtain this is provided.

While much that is written in this book seems rather obvious, general, and perhaps too optimistic, it does offer help to an often forgotten group of women who need vocational guidance.

MARIAN RAYBURN BROWN

Cornell University
Ithaca, New York

The Maryland Germans. By Dieter Cunz. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1948. Pp. x, 476. Illustrated. \$5.00.

In recent years, we have learned a great deal about that sturdy stock, the Pennsylvania Germans. That term has been fixed in history's

vocabulary for many years. The term, Maryland Germans, is less familiar and when it is used by Dieter Cunz, it does not connote quite the same thing that is associated with the term Pennsylvania Germans. Generally, the latter term is used to designate only the early settlers of Pennsylvania and their descendants. Dr. Cunz's study embraces all Germans who entered both the province and state of Maryland, whether in the seventeenth, eighteenth, nineteenth or twentieth century.

This book is a monumental study, based upon unexploited sources and replete with surnames of the great and near great of Maryland's past. Because he is a thorough student of Germanics, Dr. Cunz was able to detect the Teutonic flavor of the names he found signed to official documents, reported in newspapers or listed on muster rolls. Sometimes the reader wearies of the lengthy lists of surnames, many of which are evidently included merely because they reflect German (or Swiss) origins.

For the beginning chapters of his book the author was forced to lean heavily upon Pennsylvania sources for his information. This was in the normal order of things because the western portions of Maryland as well as some eastern counties were settled by Pennsylvanians who migrated to or accidentally found themselves in Lord Baltimore's domains. In the opinion of this observer the author falls into the error of calling the Pennsylvanians "Dutch." Of course he knows better than this; therefore his purpose in succumbing to the popular whim is somewhat nebulous. Were they Dutch while in Pennsylvania and then Germans when they crossed into Dixie?

There is little that is new to students of the colonial period. However, after the author disposes of the conflicts of the Revolutionary War and moves into a discussion of the development of Baltimore and the parts played by Marylanders in the War between the States, there is a wealth of information which is not general knowledge. The attitude of the more recent Germans in Baltimore during the first World War makes very interesting reading.

The final chapter deals with a modern trek from Pennsylvania to Maryland. It is a very sympathetic account of the voluntary movement by a number of Amish families from Lancaster County, Pennsylvania to St. Mary's

County, Maryland. This portion of the book was published, serially, in a newspaper in Zurich, Switzerland, earlier in the year.

The book is well documented and contains an adequate bibliography and index. Most of the illustrations are reproductions of crayon portraits of prominent citizens of Maryland. The volume is well printed and neatly bound.

ARTHUR D. GRAEFF

Head, Department of Social Studies
Overbrook High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

World Geography. By John Hodgdon Bradley.
New York: Ginn and Company, 1948. Pp.
xxii, 487, Maps, Charts, Illustrations. \$3.36.

During the past fifteen years educators have felt the need of a thorough training of pupils of elementary and secondary level in world geography. Our hit and miss methods of teaching geography as a part of a history course have not been as beneficial as was first planned.

Today it is very necessary that pupils should have a full knowledge of world geography. In line with this thought, a great change has been made in the writing of geography books and in the presentation of material that is realistic and interesting.

World Geography is especially planned to meet the various requirements of a well organized course in geography. The text is divided into six units. Each unit is carefully worked out and is thoroughly developed. Unit Six of this book is especially well written as the grouping of nations for particular study is arranged in such a manner as to create enthusiasm for the subject.

The illustrations are numerous, interesting and well chosen.

In using a book of this type with students of the secondary level, teachers will find that it contains the necessary material and educational guides to make pupils think in terms of world geography.

BETTY LOU HARR

Ursinus College
Collegeville, Pennsylvania

The Truman Program. Edited by M. B. Schnapper. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948-1949. Pp. x, 261. \$2.95.

Harry S. Truman's unexpected victory for the highest political office in the United States makes this volume not only extremely timely, but, so far as this reviewer knows, the only systematic handbook of the ideological aspects of Truman's interpretation of the past, present and the future. The contents are arranged categorically so as to provide an over-all view of the President's policies and plans with regard to the following subjects: The Democratic Way, International Affairs, Big Business, Taxes, Agriculture, Labor, Atomic Energy, Prices and Inflation, Civil Rights, Social Security, Health, Housing, Education, Women, Natural Resources and Communism. Since many political observers agree that the "secret" of Truman's great victory lay in the one factor to which the experts apparently gave the least weight and to which the people gave the most—*viz.*, the Truman program, this publication offers the program in an undiluted form. Senator Francis J. Myers' Introduction is a good summary of the general trends of the program. The editor, M. B. Schnapper, is to be congratulated for being able to get out the publication in such good shape and in such a short time. It is, however, unfortunate, that no general index is included.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

The Pageant of India's History. By Gertrude Emerson Sen. New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1948. Pp. 431. \$4.50.

We hear much of western civilization, both as to its sources and its course. What the average American student does not comprehend is the contemporaneity of cultural development which occurred in west and east, and that in many fields eastern civilization anticipated the west by centuries. Our occidental ego may be inclined to reject such facts, but such is the case with the recently troubled land of India. Mrs. Sen delves into a scholastically remote sphere by beginning her narrative with India's prehistory, and bringing the story through the so-called "Golden Age," the period of the Guptas, A.D. 300-650, plus an evaluation of the influence this culture had outside the country where it originated. This is the first of a projected two-volume treatment.

The origins of Indian civilization are as shadowy as those of Babylon or Greece. However, traces of primitive man exist in quantity in the area, and the first Dravidian civilization can tentatively be dated back to a period preceding the dawn of civilized man in the valleys of the Nile, the Tigris, and the Euphrates, or the justly noteworthy "Fertile Crescent." At least five thousand years have passed in both instances, perhaps a good deal more in India's case. The coming of the Aryans about 1000 B.C. gave India a new and perhaps more constructive direction. These people took an approximately standard amount of time to cease their nomadic wanderings, and to produce a variety of kingdoms. Monarchies appeared which were more various than those of the Anglo-Saxons in England centuries later. The ups and downs of these variegated political structures, the appearance of new faiths for man's direction, and Alexander's conquest of portions of the country, all pass in review. The faith of Buddha gained adherents in the land and for a long period supplanted Hinduism in various areas, although in the fifth and sixth centuries of the Christian era there was to be a considerable reaction against the imported faith. This reaction perhaps tied in with an anti-Chinese trend in various other matters.

Alexander's conquest was not vastly important, although artistically it exerted much influence, and it served as an important precedent. After the Macedonian's passing Chandragupta Maurya formed the "first real Indian Empire," uniting the country from Herat to the Ganges Delta. This family had first appeared some six hundred years earlier. Dynasty followed dynasty centrally and locally over India. These drew politically and culturally from both domestic and foreign sources and climaxed in the previously mentioned Gupta "Golden Age." Mrs. Sen evaluates with care the evidence of archeological remains from this zenith of ancient Indian culture, and also evaluates for the disastrous effects of the Hunnic invasions.

The greatest of the Gupta emperors, Chandragupta II, succeeded to the throne in 380 A.D., and during the remainder of his life was able to incorporate the whole of western India into his empire. A typical example of the use of archeological evidence is the association of

Chandragupta II and the famous iron pillar, located near Delhi.

It was Chandragupta's grandson, Skandagupta, who had to meet the worst of the Hunnic onslaught. In this interim the course of India and Europe was closely related, since this was another branch of the same people who were invading Europe and the Roman Empire with drastic effects by A.D. 455. The menace passed for India with a partial absorption of the invaders; however, they were followed by the Western Turks, who despoiled the Hunnic gains in the Indian peninsula. This period of chaos ultimately produced the new Harsha dynasty in Northern India and Nepal. India progressed mightily in a cultural sense in the succeeding period, but new invasions from China made the upward trend rather short-lived.

The last portion of the volume deals with the civilization of the "Golden Age," and with the dissemination of its standards to adjacent islands and countries for almost one thousand years after it had reached its peak. This is an equable and sound evaluation of the centrifugal influence of a great culture, comparable perhaps, if analogies are historically safe, to the influence of Greece and Rome on later western nations.

The volume contains an excellent bibliography and index, and has beautiful end-papers portraying maps of the sub-continent. It is hoped that the second volume of Mrs. Sen's able work continues the admirable pattern of the one in hand. It is diverse enough in material to admirably supplement existing treatises on the subject.

CLIFFORD MONTGOMERY

Department of History
University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

Youth Serving Organizations: National Non-governmental Associations. By M. M. Chambers. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1948. Third edition. Pp. xii, 162. \$3.00.

This is the third edition of a well-known directory of youth-serving organizations, sponsored by the Committee on Youth Problems of the American Council on Education. Its publication has been stimulated by the changes, both

expanding and curtailing, occasioned by the war, in the activities of these organizations, and by the desire to help all those interested in youth to meet the problems of youth in the post-war period.

Information is recorded not only for the organizations whose membership consists of young people, but also for many adult organizations concerned in part with youth. It includes the date of founding, headquarters address, names of major officers, and statements concerning membership and membership qualifications, purpose, activities, publications, staff, and finances. This information is presented as a compilation of data for each individual organization, and some of it is pulled out into a series of tables combining the data of different types of organizations.

One of the most useful features of the book is the tabulation of certain statistics from the three editions, making possible a comparison of youth-serving organizations for 1935-1936, 1939-1940, and 1945-1946. This and other comparisons of information in the three editions reflect the rise and fall of organizations through a most critical decade in our history. This directory in no way endorses any organization, but it contains a vast fund of information useful to teachers and others interested in youth activities.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

The World Since 1914. By Walter Consuelo Langsam. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xviii, 969. Sixth Edition.

A host of young Americans who served throughout the world in World War II returned to the campuses of American colleges and universities with a deep curiosity about the course of events which had taken them to Salerno, to Salzburg, to Shanghai. To satisfy this curiosity a number of college-level textbooks dealing with the area of study known generally as Contemporary History, the period from 1914 to the present with particular emphasis upon its political aspects, have appeared since the summer of 1945. However, most of these volumes do little more than recover ground which had been dealt with more than adequately by Langsam's

The World Since 1914 in the pre-war years. And this latest edition of his work clearly demonstrates once again those characteristics of sound scholarship, excellent organization and a challenging narrative style which have won for this book a place of leadership in a highly competitive field.

What additions and changes may be noted when this edition is contrasted to the previous one? First, four chapters have been added to bring the narration of events to the latter months of 1948. The first of these chapters deals with the winning of the Allied victory in the summer months of 1945, the second with the unsuccessful efforts of the Allied Powers to continue their wartime unity in the making of the peace, the third with internal developments in certain nations of the world, and the fourth with an examination of the structure and work of the United Nations. Then, in addition, a number of new maps have been added which illustrate not only certain of the military and naval actions which took place late in the war but also territorial readjustments which have occurred since the end of hostilities. Finally, the bibliography which was appended to previous editions has been expanded. In particular, the addition of a list of the more important yearly summaries of events, of the more influential journals dealing with international affairs, and of the more complete collections of source materials will prove extremely valuable to the inquiring student and teacher. Dr. Langsam's long experience as a teacher is evident in the care that has been taken to make this a highly useful book.

MAHLON HELLERICH

Elizabethtown College
Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania

Introduction to Research in American History.

By Homer Carey Hockett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Revised edition. Pp. iii, 179. \$3.00.

Throughout the last two decades, students entering upon research and writing in the field of American history have cut their eye teeth on Dr. Hockett's matchless guide. Although it was originally intended by its author as an aid to the beginner in the field of historical research, it has been of continuing value as a manual or

reference work to all who wish from time to time to present the results of their research in written form. It has become for many, as it certainly has for the writer, a source of information on "how to do it," from the gathering of historical facts to the presentation of those facts in final written form.

In this second edition, the main body of the work remains unchanged, under its three main headings: "The Gathering of Data," "The Criticism of Data," and "Historical Composition." The author's presentation in these three areas remains as a thorough exposition of the historical method as it is taught in graduate schools throughout the country, and as it has been set forth by Allen Johnson and others. "The work of the historian," says Dr. Hockett, "no less than that of the scientist, must rest upon reliable observation." Hence the emphasis upon proper evaluation of data as the method used by the historian to test the validity of his sources.

The chapter on historical composition not only prescribes models for the correct use of footnotes, bibliographies, and other formal practices for organizing historical writing, but also lays emphasis on the development of a good literary style. "The secret of good writing," the author believes, "lies far deeper than the careful observance of the rules of formal grammar and rhetoric." To the aspiring historian, he offers some excellent suggestions for the development of an effective style of writing.

The bibliography of the original work has been brought up-to-date by the addition of significant materials published since 1931 which have value to the student or writer of American history. Taken as a whole, it provides an excellent listing of guides to government publications, archives, and manuscripts, both of the federal government and of the various state governments. Newspaper and periodical guides and checklists are also included.

A ten-page Appendix appears at the end of the revised edition, containing numerous revisions, emendations, and additions. While not so effective as a complete revision of the entire text would have been, it does serve as a satisfactory device to bring the reader up-to-date concerning developments in historical research during the seventeen years since publication of

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the first edition. Attention is given to the use of microfilm as a means of preserving historical documents and books, and of the work of the National Archives in bringing together government documents under one roof. Especially enjoyable and enlightening are some of the author's own comments, notes, and reflections upon various aspects of his earlier work.

GEORGE I. OESTE

Germantown High School
 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Far Distant Bugle. By Loring MacKaye.
 New York: Longmans, Green and Company,
 1948. Pp. vi, 264. \$2.50.

This is another historical novel, written for junior high school students, and published by a company that has made a real contribution to the literature for this age pupils. The book is well-written, successfully maintains the interest of the reader from beginning to end, and gives a good picture of some of the conditions under

which some people lived in the West at the time of the Civil War. As a teacher, this reviewer wished that there had been a little more detailed description of the houses, the forts, the customs of that era which would make the period live a little more vividly than this book does. On the other hand, for the juvenile reader, there is much in the book to whet the appetite for learning more about these things upon which a teacher can capitalize.

The author tells a story of life at one of the western forts—Fort Bridges—during the uneasy, troublesome years just before the Civil War. The author helps the reader to understand the experiences of families breaking up because of conflicting loyalties to North and South. He also makes real some of the problems that confront any people at war. There is, between the covers of this book, much adventure, excitement, and fast-moving action, all in an authentic, historical background.

RICHARD H. McFEELY

Principal, George School
 George School, Pennsylvania

That Lively Man, Ben Franklin. By Jeannette Eaton. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1948. Pp. 253. \$2.50.

In writing the life of the many-sided Benjamin Franklin, the author of *Young Lafayette*, *Narcissa Whitman*, *David Livingstone*, and other books, has produced another fine biography for young people. Miss Eaton has succeeded well in presenting the great Franklin—printer, writer, soldier, scientist, postmaster, inventor, and statesman. She tells how as a citizen in the community he started a discussion group, a hospital, a library, and a hospital. Franklin's enthusiasm and enjoyment of life, as described throughout the pages of the book, cannot help but give the young reader a more healthy attitude toward life and a greater will to achieve.

The rapidly moving narrative, interspersed with dialogue, holds the interest. While short sentences and the large type are adapted to the eighth or ninth grade pupil, the informational content is ample for the senior high school student. It provides a fine historical background for the period of Franklin's life span. The book is recommended particularly for the junior high school, but can also be used with profit on the senior high level.

IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Freedom to Live and Learn. By Gertrude Noar. Philadelphia, Pa.: Franklin Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. xvi, 159. \$1.60.

Teachers and administrators who are interested in the core curriculum will find this book of great value. The author actually gives help with the techniques that are to be used.

The book may be used as a foundation upon which the individual teacher can experiment. It is divided into eleven chapters, copiously illustrated, and contains a bibliography at the end for further study. Various techniques are explained, illustrated and depicted for use. The language is simple, while the illustrations are concrete and practical.

Curriculum study groups, teachers in service, college students and students of the core cur-

riculum will welcome this book and after close examination will find it indispensable.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior-Senior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

Surging Cities. By Theodore T. McCrosky, Charles A. Blessing, and J. Ross McKeever. Boston, Massachusetts: Greater Boston Development Company, Inc., 1949. Pp. 287. Cloth bound \$3.00 (\$2.25 to schools). Paper bound, \$2.25.

Every city in the United States, both large and small, could profit by this book put out by the Greater Boston Development Committee. This Committee is made up of more than 200 citizens of Boston and the surrounding areas who are vitally interested in making Boston a city that any twentieth century citizen would be proud to claim as his own.

They have recognized that in Boston, as in all cities, there are so many elements of decay that for thousands of people it is no longer worth while to live there. The march to the suburbs, begun a generation ago, continues at an ever increasing rate.

Recognizing the vital importance of the city of Boston to the whole New England area, they have determined first, that Boston is worth while saving and second, that it can be saved. This is a gigantic task, for since it was not despoiled in a year, it can not be saved in a year. The first essential step in the reclaiming of Boston is a realization by all its citizens of its sorry condition and the determination by all to make it a city in which it will be pleasant to live and rear their families.

Hence the purpose of this book. It is to be used as a secondary school textbook because it is the children who will have to make a reality of the vast program planned for Boston. Any such program is by its nature a long range one, and the accomplishment of each of its objectives will cost many millions of dollars. In most states, the spending of vast sums means borrowing money and that in turn, means a referendum. Many such votes in the years to come will be presented to the people. The groundwork

for victory at the polls must be laid now. Today's school children are the electorate tomorrow and they must be completely won not only to the desirability of this program but to the necessity of it.

This book is divided into two parts. Part I, "Urban Planning Problems and Solutions," is approximately one half the book and is of general interest. It could be used successfully in the classrooms of any city of the country for it thoroughly deals with all aspects of city planning. Part II, "Greater Boston Acts for Tomorrow," presents the magnificent plans for the redevelopment of that city. To all people interested in planning, this makes fascinating reading, but the effect upon the reader might well be one of dissatisfaction because he will recognize the shortcomings of his own city.

This book is well written, but the vast number of illustrations make every point clear. It is not only eye-catching but exciting, and it creates visions of what our cities might be if there were enough citizens of vision and courage to make dreams come true. If the authors have forgotten to include anything about the subject of city planning, it would take an expert to know it. The Committee is to be congratulated on a most difficult task well done, and it is to be hoped that public-spirited citizens in other cities will follow the good example of this Boston group.

HELEN ANSLEY

Department of Social Studies
Frankford High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

John C. Calhoun, Nullifier, 1829-1839. By Charles M. Wiltse. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1949. Pp. 511. \$6.00.

The publication, several years ago of Mr. Wiltse's *John C. Calhoun, Nationalist, 1782-1828*, established the author in the front rank of contemporary American biographers and gave indication that, at long last, Calhoun was to have a biography of stature comparable to the man himself. This second volume deals with a period of approximately ten years, a decade that was as important in the life of the statesman from South Carolina as it was in the nation. This period was marked by Calhoun's final break with Jackson and Van Buren, his brief



A POEM With a HAPPY ENDING

We used to yawn in hist'ry class.
It bored us most to tears
To read about those dusty men
And dusty facts and years.
But now our yawns have turned to smiles—
Our sighs to hearty cheers.

Our hist'ry course has come to life,
And now it really rates,
For living issues, living men,
Replace those dreary dates.
The reason's clear. We're using now
OUR OWN UNITED STATES!

Wake up your history course! Give it added life, meaning, and value in the training of informed citizens, Use—

OUR OWN UNITED STATES
by John Van Duyn Southworth

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flirtation with the Whigs, a flirtation that, Calhoun was to insist, had been based upon principle and not upon expediency, and his eventual return to a position of importance as the Democratic party floundered with Van Buren at the helm.

Here, in sharply etched outlines, the reader can follow the Webster-Hayne Debate, the Jefferson Day Dinner in 1830 with the famous Jackson toast of "Our Federal Union—it must be preserved," and the clash between Clay and Calhoun in 1838. The book contains a fascinating description of the Peggy Eaton crisis and its effect upon the careers of Calhoun and Van Buren. The author gives careful consideration to the Bank controversy, and analyzes the motives and actions of all of the participants. There are intriguing descriptions and characterizations of a host of lesser figures: Duff Green and Felix Grundy, Levi Woodbury and Edward Livingston, George Poindexter and Joel Poinsett. Above them all are Clay and Webster, Hayne and Van Buren, while at the center of the book is the challenging figure of the Great Nullifier.

The book is, as any biography of Calhoun must be, primarily a political biography. There is, however, attention to personal affairs and family life. The book is characterized by sound scholarship, careful synthesis and a trenchant style. The author seems sometimes less than just to Jackson, Van Buren, and other opponents of his subject. That is a minor criticism in view of the stature of the work. It is a book that no historian or teacher of history can afford to miss.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State Teachers College
Cortland, New York

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Stock Factographs. By Louis Guenther. New York: Financial World Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 288. \$4.50.

Vital facts that are useful to teachers of economics.

The White Man's Peace. By No.-Yong Park. Boston, Massachusetts: 1948. Pp. xiv, 251. \$3.00.

An oriental view of our attempts at making world peace.

Pilgrims in a New Land. By Lee M. Friedman. Philadelphia, Pa.: The Jewish Publication Society of America, 1948. Pp. xxvi, 471. \$3.50.

Describes the story of the Jew in America from the Colonial period to the present time.

Europe in the Seventeenth Century. By David Ogg. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xiii, 576. \$5.50.

A real contribution to the history of the seventeenth century.

Hellenic History. By George Willis Botsford and Charles Alexander Robinson, Jr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. xxvi, 509. \$6.00.

Third edition of a popular book on Greek history.

The Spanglers: A Novel of Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and the Civil War. By Henry Castor. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1948. Pp. iii, 308. \$3.00.

A description of family life during the Civil War.

Geographic Approach to Social Education. Edited by Clyde F. Kohn. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1948. Nineteenth Year Book. Pp. xxv, 299. Paper bound, \$2.50; cloth bound, \$3.00.

The Nineteenth Year Book has been devoted to the appraisal and redefining of the goals of geography.

A Man Called White. By Walter White. New York: The Viking Press, 1948. Pp. xliii, 382. \$3.75.

An interesting autobiography of a man who chose to remain a Negro instead of passing as a white.

You Can't Turn the Clock Back. By R. W. G. MacKay. New York: Ziff-Davis Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. viii, 367. \$3.50.

A stirring examination of British and American foreign policies.

Introduction to Economic Science. By George Soule. New York: Viking Press, 1948. Pp. x, 154. \$2.50.

Here we have a guide to knowledge that is making economics a science instead of dogma.

Backgrounds of World Affairs. By Julia Emery. New York: World Book Company, 1948. Pp. xv, 386. \$1.68.

An excellent book for high school pupils to use in the study of world affairs.

Social Living. By Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis. New York: Ginn and Company, 1949. Pp. xxxv, Charts, Illustrations. \$2.40.

A new up-to-date edition of a popular textbook.

American National Government. By Perry Patterson and Harvey Walker. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949. Pp. xxxv, 710. \$3.38.

A new textbook presenting the subject from the historical point of view.

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